

THE TEACHERS' GUIDE.

*A Practical Treatise
written by Specialists*

Contributors:

ROBERT FINCH

*Author of The Approach to Literature
and How to Teach English Composition*

F. T. HOWARD, M.A.

University College of the South West, Exeter

J. A. WHITE, M.B.E.

CHARLES WILLIAM KIMMINS,
M.A., D.Sc.

Chief Inspector of the Education Department
of the London County Council, 1904-23

STANLEY H. WATKINS,
M.A., Ph.D.

University College of the South West, Exeter

VOLUME I

THE GRESHAM PUBLISHING COMPANY LTD.
66 Chandos Street, Covent Garden, London

1930

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INTRODUCTION

These volumes have been planned for the guidance of teachers who have to deal with children from the age of 11 and upwards. Every year the teacher's responsibility is growing and, at the present time, he is being given an ever-increasing opportunity of linking up the work at school with the future work of the child. This involves a greater understanding of the individual needs of the pupils, and to deal with these various problems adequately he will need not only to revise many of his working principles and much of his practice, but to strengthen his professional equipment. Confidence is felt that in all these ways the volumes will be of great service; they have not been written for the educational theorist, but for the teacher enmeshed in practical difficulties.

The writers of the various articles bear names well known to the majority of teachers. They have long been recognized as experts in their various departments, and their opinions and advocacy of certain principles and practice are the fruit of their successful experience in teaching. All the writers have purposely devoted themselves to the practical side of their subject and have touched upon theoretical considerations only very lightly. For principles of a more general kind readers may supplement these volumes by reference to such a book as Ward and Roscoe's *The Approach to Teaching*, and to the works of Professor Sir Percy Nunn and Professor Sir John Adams.

Differences of opinion among the writers are not numerous, but there are some. This is of no consequence—indeed it is something of an advantage for two opposing suggestions sometimes to be made.

Contributors have not been altogether consistent in their references to the various types of school, but the essential difference between type and type has been made in the first two chapters. The four principal grades of schools in the future will be determined by fairly clear-cut age ranges, though the names to be given them have not yet been officially decided upon. The names now in most common use are:

- (a) Up to 8 years: Infants, Kindergarten.
- (b) 8-11 years: Junior, Preparatory.
- (c) 11-15 years: Senior, Central.
- (d) 11-18 years: Secondary, Grammar, Public, High.

With the first and fourth of these classes these volumes are not at all concerned. Greater stress has not unnaturally been laid upon the third class than upon the second, though an adequate treatment of the various subjects has necessitated the giving of considerable attention to junior work.

Aiming at all-round success, the new schools may be tempted to overcrowd their time-tables. This is a real danger, for above all things superficiality should be avoided. A dilettante dabbling with innumerable subjects does not train the mind except to loose habits of thought. During the first two years of the four or five in a central school many subjects will necessarily have to be taught, but after the earlier stages a selection is imperative. No school will be able to cover the whole of the ground included in these volumes. Some chapters, in fact, apply to only particular types of schools. Subjects like School Camping, School Journeys, The Cinematograph in School, and Broadcasting in Schools have been included in order that teachers may be made acquainted with the successful results of educational experiments which have been tried in recent years.

HISTORICAL
AND ADMINISTRATIVE

BY
THE GENERAL EDITOR

HISTORICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE

CHAPTER I

Historical

Questions for Teachers

In view of the many developments likely to take place in the field of education during the coming years, it behoves every teacher to get outside his class-room occasionally and to survey that field as a whole. Who are the people responsible for educational changes? How are they related? What is the origin of the different types of schools in the country? How could a foreigner be helped to understand the significance of the very diverse terminology applied to them? What main working principles are now dominant in the construction of a school curriculum? What is the Hadow Report? What does "Secondary Education for all" mean? These are a few of the questions which every teacher ought to be able to answer, and the necessary facts will be summarized in this introductory section.

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The Historical Counties and the Boroughs of England and Wales

The division of the country into counties is commonly attributed to King Alfred, but it is more probable that he merely consolidated the rather fragmentary county system that already existed. Certain English county names occur in history before the extinction of the heptarchy, some of the smaller kingdoms of which, for instance, Kent, Sussex, and Essex, became counties under the new political settlement. River boundaries were, and *still are, common in the east of England, but not common south of the Thames or in the west. The Thames divides counties almost throughout its length, the Severn not at all.

Originally, a county was a stretch of country under the control of a "count", an officer charged with the preservation of the king's authority. With the growth of the feudal system, counts became feudal proprietors,

no longer mere officers but nobles. Though preserved on the Continent, the title no longer occurs in the nomenclature of English nobility, except in the feminine form.

The historical or geographical counties of England numbered 40; those of Wales, 12. The greater number are called *shires*, a Saxon word meaning simply a division.

The old division of the historical counties into *hundreds* still survives. A *hundred* originally meant a district containing a hundred families, but, with unequal increases of population, the term soon lost its meaning. Intimately connected with these old divisions are the *boroughs*. The old Saxon borough was originally nothing more than a hundred, encircled by a moat, a stockade, or a wall. The inhabitants were, and still are, called *burgesses*. As the boroughs grew in size and importance, the hundred lost its former significance. Many of the ancient boroughs have fallen into decay while new boroughs have sprung up and are still springing up. Popularly, the boroughs are known as towns; a few of them are called cities, a term much more exclusive in England than in the United States. Not all towns are given the status of boroughs. Officially, neither the term town nor the term village has much significance. Officially, we speak of boroughs and parishes.

As far as educational administration is concerned, the terms *hundred* (and its equivalents *wapentake*, *ward*, *lathe*, *rape*, which still survive in certain parts of the country) and *tything* may be ignored. So also may the terms *county palatine*, *liberty*, and *soke* (except the Soke of Peterborough), though all of them are historically interesting. The principal terms to bear in mind are *county* and *borough*.

It is a curious fact that, in England, different public authorities divide up the country in different ways. Civil, judicial, and ecclesiastical areas are all different, and to a layman the overlapping of units is baffling. Still, to understand modern educational administration, the only areas that need be considered are those defined by the Local Government Acts of 1888 and 1894.

The Local Government Act of 1888

That act established an entirely new system of local government, the corner-stone of which was government by *County Councils*. The 52 old historical counties were superseded by 62 new administrative counties. A certain number of the latter coincide in area with the former, but the majority do not. In seven cases, the historical counties were divided up into two or three new administrative counties; these were, Yorks, 3; Lincs, 3; Northants, Cambs, Suffolk, Sussex, Hants, 2 each. It should be borne in mind that these new administrative counties are, for all purposes of local government, as distinct from, and as independent of, one another as were the old historical counties. A new administrative county of London, encircling the ancient city, was carved out from the counties of Middlesex, Kent, and Surrey. All

boroughs which on Jan. 1, 1888, had a population of not less than 50,000, and a few others, were formed into separate administrative areas, entirely independent of the surrounding county, under the name of *County Boroughs*. Of these there were then 61, but, from time to time, other ordinary boroughs of growing importance have since been given the status.

The County Councils consist of Councillors chosen for three years by electors in electoral "divisions" of the county, Aldermen chosen for six years by the Councillors themselves, and a Chairman. A non-county borough of sufficient importance forms one or more of the electoral divisions, but a county borough, being entirely self-contained, does not contribute to the membership of a county council.

The Act conferred on the County Boroughs powers similar to those of the Counties. Hence, when the area or population of an administrative county is considered, the area (generally small) or population (generally large) of any County Borough within its borders must be excluded. But the non-County Boroughs within its borders are, for many purposes, regarded as part of the surrounding county.

A County Council is presided over by a Chairman, a County Borough Council by a Lord Mayor or Mayor, an ordinary non-County Borough by a Mayor. From time to time an important County Borough may be given the status of a city and its Mayor the title of Lord Mayor. The term "city" is suggestive of a title rather than of a status, for a County Borough which is created a city nevertheless remains a County Borough. Not all cities have Lord Mayors. Some of the oldest cities are quite small towns and are called cities either for historical reasons or because they are the seats of Bishops and have cathedral churches; for instance, Winchester and Ely.

A further Act in 1894 also created "Urban District" and "Rural District" Councils. An Urban District Council is an elective council of a town not yet raised to the dignity of a Borough; a Rural District Council is an elective council for the villages (parishes) of a scattered county area. Their powers are of a minor character. The Urban Districts and the Rural Districts as well as the non-County Boroughs compose the county "divisions" for County Council election purposes.

The government of London differs from the government of any other county. Until 1835, the various authorities controlling the Metropolitan area were still attached to usages and traditions which had come down from mediæval times. Dozens of country villages within a few miles of the ancient city of London had gradually become an agglomerate mass of hardly distinguishable units, all still striving to retain their old independence, without even a semblance of cohesion. Some attempt at unification came in 1835, when the Metropolitan Board of Works was created. This new Board was composed of representatives of the old "vestries", bodies which represented the districts which together had constituted London outside the city. The Board survived for more than half a century, but its powers were too limited and its personnel too unenlightened for much to be done. A far greater degree of unification was achieved in 1888 when the whole area was created

a new County, though the ancient city was allowed a very large measure of independence, save that it had to become an electoral division of the County.

But even after the Act of 1888, the old Metropolitan vestries continued to function, for strictlyⁿ local purposes, until 1899, when the administrative duties of the vestries were transferred to 28 new Metropolitan Boroughs, one of which, Westminster, was later on created a city. Thus the London County Council consists of representatives of the City of London, the City of Westminster, and 27 other London boroughs.

The *City Guilds* (Livery Companies) of London have always taken a special interest in higher education, and a few words about them here may not be inopportune. The Corporation of the City of London includes the Lord Mayor, the Sheriffs, and the Common Council, but the Liverymen of the Guilds are entitled to vote at elections in Common Hall. This indirect participation in the government of the city exercised by the Livery Companies represents the remnant of an influence which was paramount from the time of Edward III, when enactments were passed which made admission to the freedom of the city dependent on membership of a trade. Originally established to afford mutual aid to members of their craft, the Guilds of London gradually assumed a certain control over their respective traders or manufacturers. On account of the rise in the value of property, many of the Guilds have amassed great wealth. At one time they numbered over 100, but they now number 77, and some represent trades which are extinct. Twelve so-called "Great" Companies take precedence over the others. In the majority of cases, the designation of the Company gives a clue to the trade which gave rise to the Guild—the Broderers (Embroiderers), Cordwainers (Cobblers), Fletchers (Arrow-makers), Scriveners (Legal Writers), Upholders (Upholsterers), &c. The first six Companies in order of precedence are the Mercers, Grocers, Drapers, Fishmongers, Goldsmiths, and Skinners. The "Livery" or dress of the Companies, first formally adopted in the reign of Edward III, was ultimately worn only by a higher grade of members called *Liverymen*. The Companies now possess only a shadow of their former authority over trade and manufacture. Besides administering their charities, many make large contributions to benevolent objects of a pressing need; some take a great interest in promoting higher education, especially technical education; some have founded schools which have become famous, and have contributed largely to their support: the Merchant Taylors' School in the city and the Grocers' School at Oundle are instances.

The city of London is 1 square mile in area; the County of London, 117 square miles; the Metropolitan Police district, 700; the proposed London Health area, 5000.

The Ministry of Health

The local government of the country is carried on under the general control of the *Ministry of Health*, a Government department established in

1919, to which was transferred the powers and duties of the old Local Government Board. It is the Ministry of Health which really finally decides whether a growing village may be freed from a Rural District Council and be given the status of an Urban District (though in practice the decision virtually rests with the County Council), whether a growing Urban District may be given the status of a Borough, and whether a growing Borough may be given the status of a County Borough. In all these cases, population is a main factor, but there are other factors as well, for instance wisdom of administration. From a rating point of view it may be a serious thing for a County if one of its largest Boroughs is given the independent status of a County Borough, and the County may oppose strongly. Cambridge and Luton were both refused County Borough status a few years ago, because of the opposition of their respective counties.

The Board of Education. Its origin

The education of the country is carried on under the general control of the *Board of Education*, which was established by a special Act of Parliament in 1899. Before that time, the control had been nominally vested in two sub-committees or "Departments" of the Privy Council, the Education Department and the Science and Art Department. Each of these Departments had its own permanent Secretary who, together with the Minister of Education for the time being, really initiated and carried out all policy. The two departments were quite independent of each other.

The Education Department was established in 1839. Until 1833, the Elementary Schools of the country had been wholly supported by voluntary contributions and school fees. In that year the Government made a first grant of £20,000 in aid of elementary education, and six years later the Education Department was instituted for the specific purpose of distributing grants and for framing regulations necessary for such distribution. The department functioned for sixty years, and its successive Codes of Regulations during that time showed but a very slowly growing consciousness of the need of a broader outlook and of greater flexibility.

The Science and Art Department was established in 1853, fourteen years later than the Education Department. The Department owes its origin to a suggestion made by the consort of Queen Victoria, an enlightened Prince who in his short life did much to call attention to our national shortcomings in education. Had he lived, the last forty years of last century would probably have been a period of rapid educational advance instead of comparative stagnation. The special function of the Science and Art Department was to encourage the study of science and of art, both at an extraordinarily low ebb in the middle of last century. The Department had no power over higher education as such, but it was able to allocate grants for the teaching of special science subjects and art subjects. The inevitable result was that schools which it aided tended to become rather one-sided

in their outlook; it "paid" to teach subjects for which grants could be obtained; it "did not pay" to devote much time to other subjects. For this state of thing the Department was severely criticized. Really, however, the Department was not greatly to blame, for its statutory powers were definitely limited. Nevertheless it is true that its Regulations were almost as rigid as the Regulations (the "Code") of the Education Department, and since, as the years went on, the traditions of both Departments tended in some ways to harden a little, there was a general feeling before the close of the century that the two Departments should be merged and educational policy be unified and made more flexible.

By the Act of 1899, the newly constituted Board of Education took the place not only of the Education Department and the Science and Art Department, but also of the Charity Commissioners so far as educational trusts and endowments were concerned. The Board consists of a President, the Lord President of the Council, the principal Secretaries of State, the First Lord of the Treasury, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. It is worthy of note that the salary of the President is still only £2000, as compared with £3000 paid to his own permanent Secretary and £5000 paid to the majority of the other leading Ministers, for instance the Home Secretary. Since the Home Secretary ranks as our chief policeman and the President of the Board of Education as our chief schoolmaster, it would seem that Parliament's assessment of the relative values of a policeman and a schoolmaster is that of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, a matter in which all political parties seem equally disinterested.

The Act of 1899 makes provision for the appointment of a Consultative Committee, to be associated with the Board of Education; and for the inspection of Secondary Schools.

English Education before the Nineteenth Century

During the Middle Ages, English education, so far as it could be called education, was either that of the castle or of the cloister. The two stood in sharp contrast with each other. The object of the one was to form the young knight, the other the young monk. The young knight despised, was even taught to despise, learning as we now understand it; his aim was to excel in feats of arms. As for the monasteries, their teaching was directed partly to a training in an elaborate church ceremonial, partly to instruction in the writing-room (printing was an undiscovered art), where missals, psalters, and breviaries were copied and illuminated.

Whether these pre-Reformation monastery schools were available for laymen, and to what extent, if any, they began to develop a more liberal education, we do not know. But we do know a good deal about the two most interesting survivors of the pre-Reformation schools, viz. Winchester and Eton, neither of which was directly attached to a monastery. Winchester College was founded in 1373 by a wealthy and broad-minded Prelate, William of Wykeham, who about the same time founded New

College, Oxford, to which Winchester boys were intended to go, and to which many of them go still. Eton College was founded in the next century (in 1440) by Henry VI, and the original charters provided for its maintenance and perpetual endowment. The king took a personal interest even in the erection of the buildings, and, the school being next door to Windsor, it has ever since been the lucky recipient of special marks of royal favour. Weak king as Henry VI was, he showed considerable interest in education, and he founded several grammar schools in London, as well as Eton College. He seems to have been led to do this because of the drastic action of his father, Henry V, in suppressing the alien priories and religious houses.

The dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII caused many of the monastery schools in their old form to disappear, but resolute efforts were made to re-establish them on a new footing, liberated from ecclesiastical control. Within the next 130 years, well over 400 grammar schools were established, about one-third of them in the reign of Henry VIII, Edward VI, and Mary I, one-third in the reign of Elizabeth, and one-third in the reigns of James I and Charles I. Not a few of them owed their origin to some local man of wealth, who perhaps would give the school a start by building it, and by giving or leaving money or a piece of land for purposes of endowment. Many of the schools were established at the outset as "Free" Grammar Schools. Usually the initial endowment was small, and the school was often run by a Headmaster and one Assistant (an Usher). The general provision of the teaching of Latin and Greek in these schools led to their distinctive title, "Grammar". They consistently encouraged their more intelligent pupils, pupils drawn from all classes of the community, to qualify themselves for entrance to the University. The schools were essentially democratic, not socially exclusive.

Some of these grammar schools made great headway. Others languished and declined into insignificance. Some were fortunate enough to have a succession of exceptionally able headmasters who pushed all obstacles aside. Others were apparently run by lotus-eaters. Some found themselves wealthy because of the increased value of their endowment; for instance, a piece of land originally producing a small rental might become a site for an important town extension and the rental be increased a hundred-fold. This often happened in London. Most of the present great "Public Schools" (as they are rather misleadingly called) began as small Free Grammar Schools. Harrow is one; it was founded and endowed by a yeoman named Lyon. Rugby is another; it was founded and endowed by a grocer named Sheriff. Winchester and Eton stand apart: they were well-endowed "colleges" from the first and always specially favoured.

Not until the 19th century was any systematic attempt made to bring the endowed schools under any sort of control or to provide a special tribunal for dealing with them. Practically each school was a law unto itself and spent its endowments almost as it liked.

It was not until the 18th century that Elementary Schools in the present

general sense of the term came to be established on any considerable scale. After the time of the Commonwealth, scholastic endowments tended to take a new form; they were directed to the establishment of "charity schools for the children of the poor" rather than to the encouragement of liberal studies in the community at large, and they provided for education of a strictly elementary kind. These schools were almost always closely connected with the Church of England. In the 18th century, a good deal was done by a Committee of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, founded in 1699, but it was not until the 19th century that primary education made any serious headway. There were still large centres of population with practically no provision of any kind.

The Beginnings of Systematization

The history of the public provision of education in England is unique. That provision is not the worked-out product of any theory or plan formulated beforehand by statesmen or educationists. It has come into existence as the result of numerous experiments, traditions, successes, failures, and religious controversies. What has been done is the product of diverse forces, and of slow evolution and growth, rather than of clear purpose and well-defined national aims. It has been helped forward in different degrees by philanthropy, by private enterprise, by religious zeal, by the ancient universities, by endowed foundations, by municipal and local efforts, and only to a small extent—and that mainly during the last thirty years—by legislation. The genius, or rather the characteristic mental habit, of the English people is averse from system and is disposed to regard education as a mere body of practical expedients to be discovered empirically, and amended from time to time as occasion may require.

For many years the efforts of reformers were directed rather to the removal of disabilities and hindrances than to the actual encouragement of education by legislative action.

Legislative action was, in fact, for a long time retarded by watchful jealousy, much of it of a sectarian character. The evil memories associated with the harsh and intolerant legislation of an older age convinced many Englishmen at the beginning of the 19th century that no influence of the State in the sphere of charity, education, or religion was likely to be otherwise than mischievous.

This explains the old faith in voluntarism, a faith by no means yet dead. It explains, too, the old resistance of the nonconformists to any system by which the Government might propose to aid and inspect Elementary Schools. But as in 1918, so in 1815: a long and disastrous war made people think; and the 19th century proved to be a century of considerable advance.

CHAPTER II

Educational Reforms

(i) Nineteenth Century

Secondary Schools.—Although Parliament practically ignored Elementary Education until 1870, it did take some cognisance, all through the 19th century, of the institutions founded for higher education, more particularly the endowed grammar schools. Thus the work of educational reform began at the upper end, and gradually made its way downwards. A Commission was appointed by Parliament in 1816 to inquire into the conditions and resources of the endowed grammar schools, including the Public Schools, but it was not charged to inquire into their educational efficiency. The inquiry disclosed many evils, and, though little action was taken at the time, the work of inquiry continued in various forms over a long period, leading, in the end, to the close inspection of over 2000 of the schools. Many of these were compelled to undergo extensive reforms in their mode of teaching, while the revenues of nearly all of them were regulated and made to serve larger objects than before. In 1857 the work of the schools was stimulated by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge undertaking to hold "local" examinations in some of the chief towns of England. These examinations served the useful purpose of raising the standard of attainments in many schools.

In 1861, a Parliamentary Commission reported on the "nine great Foundations known as Public Schools", and in 1865 another Commission inquired not only into endowed Foundations but also into private and proprietary establishments for education other than elementary. The Report showed that a large number of the grammar schools were in a feeble and decaying state. The number of pupils receiving the sort of classical education contemplated by the founders was very small, and the instruction in other subjects was seriously defective. The Commissioners urged the necessity of legislation to correct abuses, especially as regards the composition of Governing Bodies, the absence of supervising authority, and the haphazard distribution of endowments. The result was *The Endowed Schools Act of 1869*, calling into existence the Endowed Schools Commission, whose business it was to frame new schemes. From 1874 the Act was administered by a department of the Charity Commission, whose new schemes were the means of vitalizing hundreds of feeble endowed schools. But the authority of the Charity Commissioners extended to administration only. They had no power to supervise the work of the teachers. The Assistant Staff of a school was subject to the control of the Headmaster, the Headmaster to that of the Governing Body, the Governing Body to that of the Charity Commissioners.

All through the 19th century these endowed Grammar Schools, in-

cluding the Public Schools, formed, despite their faults, the backbone of Secondary education. But it often happened that the schools bore no relation to the changing needs of a shifting and growing population. They were often to be found in remote and small towns, but only seldom in the larger and newer populous centres. Many of the Public Schools and not a few of the grammar schools reached a high stage of efficiency, but the efficient schools did not, by a very long way, serve the needs of the whole country. Moreover, they remained more or less private corporations, self-contained, not units in a thought-out national system.

Some of the schools obtained financial help from the Science and Art Department, and some benefited from funds made available by the *Technical Instruction Act of 1889*. But although the *Welsh Intermediate Act of 1889* facilitated the development of an adequate system of Secondary Schools in Wales, nothing by way of an organized system of Secondary education was attempted in England until after the close of the century.

There was a general feeling in the early nineties that the position was extremely unsatisfactory, and in 1894 a Royal Commission on Secondary Education was appointed. Their report in 1895 advocated a State system of Secondary Schools. Thus it was recognized at last that such a system was necessary and should be instituted. A preliminary inquiry undertaken to ascertain the number of pupils in public and private Secondary and other Schools in England, not being Public Elementary or Technical Schools, resulted (1898) in a Report to Parliament that was very significant of the varied and incoherent character of the provision existing for Secondary instruction. The Report said:

"Some are boarding schools, some are only for day scholars. Some are the property of private individuals or of partners in private enterprise; some are controlled by Committees representing bodies of subscribers; some are the property of Companies formed under Articles of Association with limited liability; some are controlled by public local authorities; some are regulated by Royal Charter, by Act of Parliament, or by some other legal instrument. Some are for boys only, some for girls only, some for both boys and girls. But as there is no general system of inspection applying to all the schools alike, it is not possible, with any approach to accuracy, to classify the whole number of schools, private and public, into grades of educational service. Nor is there in existence any list or register of those schools which pretends to be exhaustive. The whole subject is exceedingly obscure and has never been brought within the scope of comprehensive statistical inquiry."

The Boer War intervened, and Parliament was too preoccupied to do much for education until after 1901. Then came the famous Education Act of 1902.

Primary Schools.—The provision of primary education on a large scale was much stimulated by the foundation of two great educational organizations, the British and Foreign School Society in 1808 and the National Society in 1811. The latter represented the Church of England,

the former the Nonconformist Churches. Many of the old Parish schools became amalgamated with those of the National Society, but the initial effort of these societies, and of the various Churches, and of various charitable institutions, completely failed to meet rational needs. The first Government grant was made in 1833. It was only £20,000, and it was to be applied to the erection of school buildings; and at first it was distributed on the recommendation of the two societies just mentioned. Such a small sum was utterly inadequate to meet the needs of the case.

Gradually the public became alive to the situation, and in 1857 a great educational conference under the Presidency of the Prince Consort was held in London. The immediate result of this was the appointment of a Parliamentary Commission to inquire into the state of popular education. Their report was issued in 1861, and in it they stated that, although the plan of leaving the initiation of popular education to religious bodies had, on the whole, been justified by results, it was desirable that local boards of education should be established with power to levy local rates. Unfortunately there had been disagreement amongst the Commissioners, and the Government were therefore disinclined to take the risk of embodying their recommendations in an Education Bill, and nothing was done. But the Education Department did revise their Code of Regulations, which henceforth decreed regular examinations and payment by results, an unenlightened principle which survived for nearly forty years.

It was not until 1870 that Parliament took steps to establish some kind of national system of primary education. Until that time such primary schools as existed owed their origin almost entirely to voluntary enterprise, and their maintenance to voluntary subscriptions and school fees. Thus, later on, these old schools came to be called "Voluntary" schools. To Parliament the problem of introducing a national system had always been rendered difficult by the clash of opinion concerning the religious basis to be given to the system. Some people demanded that the State should confine itself exclusively to secular education; others demanded that religious teaching must be given priority, and that if this was to be effective it must be denominational and be taught by ministers of religion; still others demanded that while religious teaching should occupy an important place in the school time-table, it should be wholly undenominational—it should consist of reading from the Bible, accompanied by simple undogmatic explanation—but that parents might, if they wished, withdraw their children from such lessons. It was this last principle that gained acceptance in 1870. Clause 14 of the new Act, due to a Mr. Cowper-Temple, enacts that "in any school provided by a School Board, no religious catechism, or religious formulary, which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall be taught".

1870 is a memorable year in the history of education, in that, for the first time, public provision of elementary education was made compulsory. True it took cognisance of only elementary education, but it was at least a beginning, and a forecast of better things to come. The Act was described

as "*An Act to provide for Public Elementary Education in England and Wales*". By it, every school "district" (generally the borough or the parish: London was treated as a single entity) was to be placed under a specially elected "School Board" whose duty it was to provide "a sufficient amount of accommodation in public elementary schools available for all the children between the ages of 5 and 13 resident in such district, for whose elementary education efficient and suitable provision is not otherwise made". Within a few years School Boards became general throughout the country, though a few towns, adequately provided with voluntary schools, were able to do without them. Thus for the first time elementary education drew financial aid from the rates, as well as from Government grants.

This is the only occasion on which Parliament has set up local Bodies to be elected exclusively for purposes of education.

These new "provided" schools (at first called "Board" Schools, now called "Council" Schools) have ever since existed side by side with the voluntary schools. Approximately the two sets of schools are now numerically equal.

The School Board system was not a great success. A large proportion of the "districts" was very small, and the personnel of the Boards were often lacking both in breadth of view and in keenness of vision. It became clear to Parliament that, for educational administration, very small units of control were undesirable. The new County Councils which were set up in 1888 soon won a much greater measure of public confidence, and it was evident that ultimately they would be the Bodies to be given control of education.

The Technical Instruction Act, 1889,

In the early eighties much discussion arose concerning our national shortcomings in technical instruction. Technical instruction was defined as "instruction in the principles of science and art applicable to industries, and in the application of special branches of science and art to specific industries or employments". "It shall not include teaching the practice of any trade or industry or employment." Grants for instruction in subjects of science and art had long been paid by the Science and Art Department, but, in response to public pressure, Parliament passed a special *Technical Instruction Act* in 1889, giving Counties and County Boroughs the right to levy a penny rate for the promotion of technical and manual instruction within their areas. The Act was strongly opposed by the School Boards, who considered that they were the authorities to be given control of technical instruction, but Parliament decided in favour of the Councils. The result was that the County Councils and the County Borough Councils set up *Technical Instruction Committees* which, down to 1902, were virtually the authorities for higher education. The financial resources of these Committees consisted not only of the penny rate, but

also of £750,000 derived from the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890 (a sum of money representing an unappropriated surplus of beer and spirit duty). Although the Committees had no authority to establish Secondary Schools as such, they had the power to make grants to existing Secondary Schools; and the Secondary Schools were also able to obtain grants from the Science and Art Department, if they accepted the Department's Regulations for "Organized Science Schools". Whilst therefore it is true that the main function of these Committees was the promotion of Technical Instruction, they also responded generously to the appeal for financial help made by Secondary Schools, and but for this timely help and encouragement during the lean nineties, many of the old grammar schools would probably have died.

The teaching of technological subjects was practically barred by the terms of the Technical Instruction Act, but these were encouraged by the Guilds of the City of London, which for a time virtually acted as a central authority for education of a distinctly technological character. Within a few years the London County Council took the lead, drawing additional funds both from the City Companies, from the City parochial charities, and from other sources. The Polytechnics were reorganized and others were re-established, and technical instruction and technological instruction were deftly woven together.

Thus, one way and another during the nineties, great advances in different forms of higher education were made, but the only resources available had to be devoted to particular subjects. For instance, an "Organized Science School" had to devote thirteen hours to mathematics, science, and art, and many of the older grammar schools, while accepting the Regulations, found them irksome. But in this and cognate matters, the hands of the County Councils and the County Borough Councils were tied, and opinion became general that the Technical Instruction Act would have to be supplemented by a special Act for Secondary Education. This brings us again to the Act of 1902, but before dealing with that we must refer to the beginnings of Higher Primary education.

Higher Primary Education before 1902

A hundred years ago it was an unusual thing to find children spending more than two or three years in an Elementary School. Either economic conditions or parental selfishness generally made the children wage-earners at the age of ten or eleven or even earlier. But there were almost always a few who wished to stay at school until about 14, and the problem of making suitable provision for small top classes is a very old one. Even between 1819 and 1824 mathematics and French were taught in a few of the primary schools. It is, in fact, probably true that, throughout the whole growth of English primary education, attempts have been made to devise a suitable curriculum of a higher primary type for the few older pupils staying on at school. In the forties, several Inspectors of the Education

Department urged the desirability of establishing, in central localities, separately organized schools for older children, but their suggestions did not meet with official favour, and such work as continued to be done was of a sporadic character.

In the Code of 1862, higher work was coldly discouraged, and the curriculum continued to be restricted mainly to the 3 R's and to needlework. Some relaxation was made in 1867 when additional grants were made for "specific" subjects (grammar, geography, history), and higher work began to emerge once more. In 1871, the number of possible specific subjects was greatly extended, and included foreign languages, mathematics, and science; and in 1875 "class" subjects (really the original specific subjects) were introduced, and additional grants paid on them. At this stage the 3 R's and needlework were obligatory, class subjects were optional for all six Standards, and specific subjects might be taught to individual senior children. In the eighties, the number of children who stayed on at school to 13 and beyond increased greatly, and a seventh standard was added in 1882.

But a number of children, especially in the big towns, remained at school after passing the seventh standard, and ex-standard classes were accordingly formed. The result was that a good many of the more enlightened School Boards began to send these older children from the ordinary schools to a central school, sometimes in specially erected buildings. In the late eighties and in the nineties, these schools were often called unofficially "Higher Grade" Schools, and eventually many of them placed their ex-seventh standard children under the control of the Science and Art Department, and thus the Higher Grade School became officially recognized as an organized Science School. This group of Organized Science Schools, as distinguished from those that had taken root in the grammar schools and in the Polytechnics, found it very difficult to retain more than a small percentage of pupils for the four years' course of instruction, 12 to 16. The majority tended to leave at 14. As now, so then: there was a great demand for about two years of work beyond the ordinary elementary stage; there was very little demand for four.

Opinion was much divided as to the usefulness of these Higher Grade Schools. This came out in a very definite manner in the Report of the Parliamentary Inquiry of 1888. There was also a difference of opinion amongst the Bryce Commissioners in 1895, but one thing they generally admitted, and that was that such schools are necessary to the completion and efficiency of the educational system; and they recommended that such schools should be treated as Secondary Schools, placed under a Local Authority for Secondary education, and brought into organic relation with other Secondary Schools of the district.

The question of the legal status of Higher Grade Schools was unexpectedly raised at the close of the century by the London auditor of the Local Government Board, Mr. Cockerton, who maintained that the London School Board had been educating children on lines not provided

for in the Code, and that such expenditure was therefore illegal. It is true that the London School Board, and other School Boards too, had for nearly twenty years been doing a certain amount of higher work in their Pupil Teacher Centres, but this work was modelled on Elementary School lines rather than on the lines of the existing Secondary (the grammar) Schools, the Centre Staffs having had little experience of Secondary School Organization. In fact, the Centre work was almost identical with the Higher Grade School work, save that the standard was rather lower. It might therefore have been expected that the Auditor would have taken exception to the work of the Centres as well as to that of the schools. That he did not do so is perhaps due to the fact that it was the official duty of the School Board, by Code regulation, to provide instruction of *some* kind for the Pupil Teachers.

However, the point raised by Mr. Cockerton came before the Courts, and both the Court of Queen's Bench and later the Court of Appeal (1901) decided against the School Board. Parliament passed a short enabling Act to give the School Boards power to carry on the Higher Grade School work temporarily, but the great Education Act of 1902 was already under way.

Another consequence of the Cockerton decision was the framing of a special minute, by the Board of Education, establishing a new system of "Higher Elementary" Schools. The minute recognized officially a class of Elementary Schools which were to receive a higher rate of grant than ordinary Public Elementary Schools, on condition that they were so organized as to give a four years' course of instruction between the ages of 10 and 15. A few of the old Higher Grade Schools applied for recognition under the new minute, and thus changed their name of "Higher Grade" to "Higher Elementary". The revival of the term "Elementary" was not popular, but it was a safeguard.

(ii) Twentieth Century

The Education Act of 1902

The Board of Education and their Consultative Committee were created by the Board of Education Act of 1899. The Act was a very short one, for it was understood that a comprehensive Education Act would follow within a short time. *The Education Act of 1902* is the second great landmark in English education. We summarize the main provisions of the 4 Parts into which the Act is divided.

Part I defines a Local Education Authority as, in the main, the Council of every County and the Council of every County Borough.

Heated debates in Parliament took place as to the constitution of the new Local Education Authorities. As the School Boards were to be abolished, and as it was proposed to hand over the entire control of education to the counties and the big towns, the vested interests in all the smaller towns were ablaze at once. Why should tens of thousands of members of

the old School Boards and thousands of officials be crushed out of existence? Parliament deemed it wise to make a concession, and in the end they decided that the more important smaller towns might have exclusive control of elementary education, but not of higher education. The population limits imposed were, over 10,000 for boroughs and over 20,000 for urban districts.

Thus Local Education Authorities consist of

1. For Higher Education:

- (i) The Councils of County Boroughs for their own areas.
- (ii) The Councils of Counties for their own areas except the contained County Boroughs.

2. For Elementary Education:

- (i) The Councils of County Boroughs for their own areas.
- (ii) The Councils of ordinary Boroughs of over 10,000, for their own areas.
- (iii) The Councils of Urban Districts of over 20,000, for their own areas.
- (iv) The Councils of Counties, for their own areas, except contained County Boroughs, contained ordinary Boroughs of over 10,000, and contained Urban Districts of over 20,000.

The disadvantages of the plan are obvious. Most of the counties (Lancashire is a striking example) have within their areas not only a number of County Boroughs entirely independent for all forms of education, but also a number of ordinary boroughs and urban districts independent for elementary education. Thus the counties have no control over elementary education except in rural areas, although it is their business to provide higher education in all the towns except the very largest. The friends of this very patchwork plan say it originated in local patriotism; others say it originated in local jealousy. It is perhaps inevitable that administrative efficiency is sometimes sacrificed to political expediency.

Part II of the Act deals with Higher Education. According to Section 2 (1),

“The Local Education Authority shall consider the educational needs of their area and take such steps as seem to them desirable, after consultation with the Board of Education, to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary, and to promote the general co-ordination of all forms of education.”

The important words here are, “take such steps as seem to them desirable”. The provision of Elementary Schools was made compulsory in 1870. Even in 1902 Parliament shrank from compelling Local Education Authorities to provide Secondary Schools. The Board of Education were left to do what they could to *persuade* L.E.A.'s to set to work over new Secondary Schools, and great credit is due both to the Board of Education and to

the L.E.A.'s that Secondary School provision on such a large scale was made between 1902 and 1914. These years were fruitful indeed, despite the absence of compulsory powers.

Under the Act the funds available for higher education consisted of the £750,000 under the old Local Taxation Act, and the produce of a twopenny rate (more, if consent was given). Even the smaller towns were given the power to raise a penny rate for education higher than elementary, money which is generally used for scholarships and for evening classes.

It should be noted that the common phrase "Part II Authority" means the Local Education Authority for Higher Education.

Part III of the Act deals with Elementary Education. The new L.E.A.'s had to take over the duties of the old School Boards, which were abolished. Both the L.E.A.'s own new schools and the old Board schools were now called "Council" Schools, a term often used in contradistinction to the term "Voluntary" Schools. The terms "provided" and "non-provided", respectively, are sometimes used to distinguish these two classes of schools. The Act provides for the appointment of managers, usually six, for all schools, provided and non-provided.

The common phrase "Part III Authority" means the Local Education Authority for Elementary education.

Part IV of the Act is described as general. Two sections may be mentioned. *Section 17* orders that every Local Education Authority shall appoint an *Education Committee*, to which all matters under the Act are to be referred, except the power of raising a rate or borrowing money, a power which is to be reserved to the L.E.A. itself. *Section 22* makes it possible for instruction given in an Elementary School to be extended to 15+, "to scholars who at the close of the school year will not be more than 16 years of age".

It might have been anticipated that, in view of the new power under Section 22, higher primary education would have forged ahead, and Higher Elementary Schools be established in large numbers. But partly because of the restrictive nature of the Higher Elementary School Regulations, and partly because the L.E.A.'s were devoting main attention to Secondary School developments, comparatively little was done. Some Authorities, London for instance, did a good deal of advanced work within the provisions of the ordinary Code, and Section 22 of the Act seemed really to encourage experiments of this kind.

A number of full-time *Day Trade Schools*, chiefly for boys, were established, especially in the London area, in the early years of the century. They were designed to take boys, on or near the completion of their elementary school course, for a period of 1, 2, or 3 years, and give a specialized training that would fit them to enter, at about the age of 16, into workshop or factory life. Later on, a new type of full-time schools was established, known as *Junior Technical Schools*. These were schools providing courses for boys and girls during two or three years after leaving the Public Elementary Schools, in which a continued general education was

to be combined with a definite preparation for some industrial employment at the age of 15 or 16.

A system of *Central Schools* was established in London in 1911. The system absorbed a number of Higher Elementary Schools and old Higher Grade Schools. The London County Council's handbook explains that the chief object of the Central School is to prepare girls and boys for immediate employment on leaving school, and that the instruction should therefore be such that "the children will be prepared, on the completion of the course, to go into business houses or workshops". "The curricula should be framed so as to have an industrial or commercial bias or both." The education was to be "eminently practical without being vocational in any narrow sense". These schools were distinguished from the Secondary Schools by a lower leaving age and by a less academic curriculum, and from the Junior Technical Schools by an earlier age of admission and by the fundamental fact that they did not in any sense aim at providing technical training for any particular trade or business.

The Education Act of 1918

The period 1914-1918 was necessarily a period of educational stagnation, but public opinion had hardened in the direction of driving L.E.A.'s ahead a little more rapidly, and in 1918 Parliament passed a new Act, supplementing and strengthening the Act of 1902. We refer to certain sections of special interest:

Section 1.—"With a view to the establishment of a national system of public education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby, it shall be the duty of the Council of every County and County Borough, so far as their powers extend, to contribute thereto by providing for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education in respect of their area."—The important words here are *it shall be the duty*. L.E.A.'s are no longer allowed to do as they please about providing higher education for their areas, as they were in 1902; it is now their statutory duty.

Section 2.—"It shall be the duty of a Local Education Authority so to exercise their powers under Part III of the Education Act, 1902, as

- "(a) To make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable provision by means of central schools, central or special classes, or otherwise—
- "(i) for including in the curriculum of Public Elementary Schools, at appropriate stages, practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children; and
- "(ii) for organizing in Public Elementary Schools courses of advanced instruction for the older or more intelligent children in attendance at such schools, including children who stay at such schools beyond the age of 14.

“(c) To make adequate and suitable arrangements for co-operating with L.E.A.’s for the purpose of Part II of the Act, in matters of common interest, and particularly in respect of the preparation of children for further education in schools other than elementary, and their transference at suitable ages to such schools.”

The important point in this section is that the provision of higher primary instruction is now a *duty*, is now compulsory. Under the Act of 1902 it was merely permissive.

Section 7 abolishes the 1902 limit of a twopenny rate for higher education, and leaves to the discretion of the L.E.A. the rate to be levied.

Section 8 (2) enables L.E.A.’s to frame by-laws making attendance at school compulsory up to the age of 15 instead of 14.

Section 25 imposes on all non-grant-earning schools, of whatsoever kind, the duty of furnishing to the Board of Education “the name and address of the school or institution and a short description of the school or institution”, and “such further particulars with respect to the school or institution as may be prescribed by regulations made by the Board”.—This was the first time that Parliament had thrust any sort of duty on Private schools. It amounts to very little, and there is still nothing to compel Private schools to submit to inspection. A large number of such schools have, however, been inspected, and many pronounced efficient, but the necessary Board of Education inspection has always been carried out by request of the authorities of the school. Many remain uninspected, and of unknown merit. It is still possible, in law, for any unqualified and incompetent person, from any walk in life, to set up a Private school, call it a Collegiate Academy, issue a gaudy prospectus, append to his name a number of misleading initials suggestive of some sort of academic distinction, and appoint a staff of castaways. There is no Authority to say him nay. Admittedly there are some things about which the motives of Parliament are a little obscure.

The Education Act of 1921 contained nothing new. It was simply a consolidating Act, embodying all previous Education Acts then in force. The Act may be conveniently used for all purposes, and the older Acts ignored.

CHAPTER III

The Hadow Report

Some of the Facts Adduced

In 1924 the Board of Education referred to their Consultative Committee the following question for consideration:

"To consider and report upon the organization, objective, and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools other than Secondary Schools, up to the age of 15, regard being had on the one hand to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curriculum, so far as it is practicable, for children of varying tastes and abilities, and on the other to the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry, and agriculture."

The Committee issued their Report in 1926. It is officially described as *The Education of the Adolescent*, but it is popularly known as *The Hadow Report*, Sir W. H. Hadow having been the Chairman of the Committee. The Report should be carefully read by all teachers.

A few passages may be usefully quoted:

"Thanks largely to the bridges thrown by the Free Place system from the Elementary to the Secondary School, many thousands of parents who twenty years ago did not think of education other than elementary as a possibility open to their children, have been familiarized with the conception of primary education as a preparatory stage which should lead naturally to some form or another of more advanced work; and a public demand for post-primary education has been created which the existing Secondary Schools, with the resources at present at their disposal, are not always easily able to satisfy. The growth of Secondary and of Central Schools has revealed a wealth of ability among children attending the elementary schools, the existence of which is a ground both for confidence and anxiety—confidence in the natural endowments of our fellow countrymen, and anxiety lest at the age at which the powers of the rising generation are most susceptible of cultivation and sensitive to neglect, the nation should fail to turn to the best account so precious a heritage" (p. 44).

"The questions which need a reply are numerous and complex. What kinds of curricula are most likely to meet the varying requirements of children between the ages of 11 and 15 years of age, and what parts should be played in them by practical interests and by more general literary and scientific studies? What should be the relations between primary and post-primary education? What are the main types of school needed for the latter? In what relation should such schools stand both to Secondary Schools of the kind most common to-day, and to the advanced instruction already carried on in an increasing number of Elementary Schools?" (p. 45).

"Local Authorities have devoted much attention to the question of providing 'courses of advanced instruction', since the Education Act, 1918, came into operation. The Act left very wide discretion to Local Authorities in this matter, and no attempt has been made by the Board to suggest, still less to prescribe, the lines upon which courses of advanced

instruction should be organized. Local Authorities have accordingly been free to develop the methods which they consider best suited to their local circumstances and needs" (pp. 52-3).

"The *Central Schools* for older children only, which have been established up to the present by various Local Authorities, seem to fall into two main classes:

- "(i) Schools composed of children 'selected' at about the age of 11, usually by examination, the majority of whom remain three, and in some cases four, years longer under instruction. These schools can best be described as *Selective Central Schools*.
- "(ii) Schools beginning work about the level of Standard V, into which all or most normal children from a group of contributory schools in a district are drafted after they have pursued a course of instruction up to that level. These schools may be conveniently described as *non-Selective Central Schools*.

"Apart from the provision of Selective or non-Selective Central Schools for older pupils only, a number of authorities have organized courses of advanced instruction within existing Elementary schools. Such courses fall into two main groups:

- "(i) Those provided in large public Elementary Schools in which an advanced course can be organized in the upper part of the school for pupils who have passed through the lower classes. Upper classes of this type are sometimes known locally as *higher tops*.
- "(ii) Public Elementary Schools receiving children from other schools into their upper classes, which are so organized as to provide a course of advanced instruction. The upper parts of such schools are often described as *central classes*" (pp. 53-4).

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the large number of facts obtained from many sources, the Committee arrived at certain conclusions and made certain recommendations. The chief of these may be summarized:

1. Some form of post-primary education should be made available for all normal children between the ages of 11 and 14, and, as soon as possible, 11 and 15. Primary education should be regarded as ending at 11+, and all post-primary education might be conveniently described as secondary.

2. Schools which deal with post-primary education should include the following types:

- (i) Secondary Schools of the type now commonly existing, which at present follow in the main a predominantly literary or scientific curriculum.

- (ii) Selective Central Schools of the existing type, with a practical trend in the last two years.
- (iii) Non-selective Central Schools of the existing type, also with a practical trend in the last two years.
- (iv) Senior Classes or Higher Tops forming separate departments, in rural districts where separate Central Schools cannot be established and where only one school is possible for both Juniors and Seniors.

The aim of the schools of the last three types should be to provide an education by means of a curriculum containing large opportunities for practical work closely related to living interests.

3. Distinctive names for the different types of schools are desirable, and the following are suggested:

- (i) *Grammar School*.—This old name might be revived, and applied to all schools of the existing Secondary School type. Age range, 11+ to 18+.
- (ii) *Modern School*.—This name might be applied to all Central Schools, Selective and non-Selective alike. Age range, 11+ to 14+, or 11+ to 15+.
- (iii) *Senior Classes*.—This name might be applied to the separately organized senior department in rural areas where only one school for all purposes is possible. Age range, 11+ to 14+ or 15+.

4. *Curriculum for Modern Schools and Senior Classes*.—Though the subjects included in the curriculum will be much the same as in Grammar Schools, more time and attention should be given to different forms of practical work, especially in the last two years. Although the courses of instruction should not be vocational, the treatment of the subjects should be practical in the broadest sense and be brought directly into relation with the facts of everyday life.

5. *Qualifications of Teachers in Modern Schools and Senior Classes*.—These should approximate to those required in the corresponding Forms of Grammar Schools. But more teachers will be required for practical subjects than in Grammar Schools.

6. *Entrance Examination*.—Since all children should at 11+ enter either a Grammar School or a Modern School (or Senior Class), a written examination should be held, to discover which school is most suitable to the child's abilities and interests. An oral examination should also be held, and, for border-line cases, a psychological test as well.

7. *Leaving Examination*.—A Leaving Examination for 15+ children in Modern Schools and Senior classes is desirable, but only experience can decide what form this examination can best take.

8. *Junior Technical Schools and Trade Schools*.—These might preserve their present identity.

“The New Prospect in Education”

Educational Pamphlet 60.—In this pamphlet, the Board of Education defines its attitude towards the Hadow Report. The following extracts and comments are sufficient to indicate that the Board are likely to adopt its main conclusions. The Board emphasize the distinction between the Selective Senior schools for the minority and the non-selective Senior Schools for the whole of the remainder.

“The Hadow Report has in mind *all* sorts and conditions of children. The advance contemplated is not on a narrow front, but the whole line is to move forward. To achieve this the forces are divided into two great sections—Junior Schools and Senior Schools, a Junior School course from about the age of 7+ to about the age of 11+, and a Senior School course to about the age of 14 or 15. The cut between the two types of school is on the basis of age, and not of attainment or capacity” (pp. 1-2).

“The function of the *Junior School* is to prepare children for the more diversified development of the Senior stage, that is to give them a mastery of the tools and elements of instruction.” “The new organization sets the new Junior School free to concentrate on its own proper function. It is essential that there should be effective co-operation with the Senior School, but the demands of the Senior and Secondary Schools should not be allowed in any way to fetter the freedom of the Junior School in working out its own methods” (pp. 2, 14).

“The function of the *Senior School* is to devise varying courses of instruction for the main categories into which the pupils will naturally fall. It is impossible to exaggerate the significance of what may be called ‘the course idea’. The success of a school will lie in the completion of the arranged programme for each child.”

“We want not only Senior Schools for all, but special types for *selected* pupils. What, up to now, has been loosely termed ‘the Central School’ is important because we may by its means feel our way to new varieties of post-primary education. One warning is necessary: the Committee had their eye on a fully developed Modern School, and the course of the ordinary *non-selective* Senior School will generally be based on less ambitious lines” (pp. 2, 3).

“There is the difficult problem of examination on which the Consultative Committee make certain definite recommendations. But here again we must bear in mind that the suggestions have mainly in view a four-year course ending at the age of 15+, and for *selected* children. Unless the problem is faced in time by the wise and thoughtful, it may be solved or prejudiced in a premature and unwise fashion. There is the ever present temptation to think that the use of existing examinations of an academic and pre-university nature will dignify the status of a Modern School, and a unique opportunity of seeking new types of curricula and new methods of treatment may thus be deflected into traditional and inappropriate channels. It will be nothing short of a calamity if the end of the

Modern School is an anæmic reflection of the present Secondary School " (p. 3).

" The Committee contemplated that schools dealing with the education of children over the age of 11 should include schools of the type now known as Secondary, and, in appropriate cases, schools of the type of existing Senior Technical Schools and Selective Central Schools. Schools of all these types are definitely designed to meet the needs of *selected* children of 11+, and the work of all of them is already clearly distinct from the general and unspecialized groundwork undertaken in the ordinary Elementary School. But to create facilities for the children now in these ordinary Elementary Schools to receive education of the kind contemplated in the Report is a new task requiring a fundamental change in outlook " (pp. 5, 6).

" The problem set by the Report is thus essentially different from that which has given rise to the extension of Secondary School provision and to the establishment of the Junior Technical and the selective Central School. It is that of the adaptation of the existing Elementary School system so that *all* the older children, not a selected few, may receive an education suited to their age and special needs, practical in the broadest sense " (p. 6).

" The Secondary School, as we now know it, must continue as a school in which all will follow a curriculum with definite provision for post-matriculation work. The Junior Technical School may be expected to retain its distinctive characteristic of providing an education with a strong bias in the direction of a definite industry or group of industries. The nature and extent of the provision made under these heads will clearly affect the methods adopted in any particular area for the establishment of Senior Schools for the great mass of the children. But the problem is itself distinct " (p. 7).

" Of all the Local Education Authorities in England and Wales, barely one-fifth have made any attempt to reorganize any part of their area so that *all* children are transferred at the age of 11+ to a Senior School. Almost the whole task of reorganizing the Elementary Schools still remains to be accomplished—the task of providing a Senior School education for over 1,500,000 children " (pp. 7, 8).

" The desired results will not be achieved merely by altering the boundaries between departments within the school, for only in the very largest schools will there be enough children, over the age of 11, to form a separate, properly classified Senior School. We have now to conceive as the normal unit not the single school but the *group*. In all but the most densely populated areas, Senior Schools must draw their pupils from a relatively wide area, if they are to be large enough to admit of suitable organization " (pp. 8, 10).

" The need of a further break in the school course, apart from that between the Infants' Department and the main school, has in recent years become more and more obvious. The older children need separate treat-

ment just because they are older both in body and mind. The age of 11 is increasingly recognized as the most suitable dividing line between what may be called junior and senior education. It is the age at which those children who are most advanced in elementary subjects will find it most easy to embark on a new study " (pp. 9, 10).

For transfer to the Senior School, "age is a better guide than scholastic attainments. If children are transferred on a strict age basis, the Junior School is then freed from the burden of providing for retarded older children. There is nothing more discouraging to a head teacher than that a large number of the more able older children should be removed, and that the school should be left with the hopeless task of catering for all the younger children, and at the same time for a small number of the more difficult children over the age of 11 " (pp. 11, 15).

"It is important that children should be transferred from the Junior to the Senior School at the age and at the period of the year at which pupils are admitted to the Secondary and Central Schools " (p. 12).

The break between the Infants' School and the Junior School "should come at the age of 7 or at 8; every effort should be made to avoid a break at 9, as under this arrangement the Junior School covers only 2 years of school life, and finds it very difficult to provide a satisfactory course in this short period " (p. 16).

"The selective Central School should not stand in splendid isolation, but should form an integral part of the system of education for all pupils over 11. The provision of a Selective School is not justified if it means that the unselected children are left scattered here and there in contributory schools, never enough in one place to constitute a good Senior School. The Central School among a group of Senior Schools is the recognized leader for the others " (pp. 22-3).

"It is of the first importance to provide the right amount of Central School accommodation in relation to the number of children in the area as a whole. If all the older children are to be transferred at the age of 11 to Senior Schools providing proper facilities for advanced and practical instruction, the function of the selective Central School is to provide for those children who stand out as possessing specially high capacity, and it is the general experience that difficulties follow if much more than 25 per cent of the children are selected at the age of 11 for admission to Secondary and Central Schools together. On the one hand, it will probably be found that some of the children selected are not of a sufficiently high standard, and their presence will then act as a drag upon the work of the whole Central School. On the other hand, if so many of the brighter children are selected, the ordinary Senior Schools are left with a very high proportion of their children belonging to the definitely duller types."

In the *Board of Education Report* for 1928, the various points dealt with in *The New Prospect in Education* are emphasized, and it is stated (p. 61) that "the principles underlying the recommendations of the

Consultation Committee [in the Hadow Report] are now very generally accepted as sound."

From *The New Prospect* it would appear that although the Board will adopt the main principles of the Hadow Report, they do not much care for the proposed new terms "Grammar" and "Modern". The Report suggests that the term "Modern" shall be applied both to the ordinary *Senior* School and to the *Central* School for selected pupils. Distinguishing terms for these two classes of schools are obviously desirable, and it may be that *Senior* and *Central* will be the terms chosen. The actual names do not, of course, much matter, though if they are self-explanatory so much the better.

Thus all Elementary School children will pass through three stages, generally in separate schools. For the great majority the three schools will be:

Infants' School, 5 to 7 or 8.

Junior School, 7 or 8 to 11+.

Senior School, 11+ to 15+.

In a town of moderate size, we might expect to find, perhaps, half a dozen schools of each of the three grades.

But *one* of the Senior Schools (possibly two) would be reserved for selected children, and would be called a *Central* School. It would be the leader of a group of Senior Schools. It would retain its children a year longer and would do more advanced work. Central Schools, like ordinary Senior Schools, would be free.

But the cream of the Junior Schools would proceed, as "Free Place" pupils, to a Secondary School where normally they would be expected to stay for a much longer period than at a Central School. The Free Place pupils would take their places side by side with the ordinary fee-paying Secondary School pupils.

Thus the first skimming from the Junior School would proceed to a Secondary School, normally for 7 years; the second skimming would proceed to a Central School, normally for 4 years; the remainder, probably 75 per cent or 80 per cent of the whole, would proceed to the ordinary Senior School, normally for 3 years.

CHAPTER IV

Administrative Problems

Authorities, Central and Local

The Board of Education is the central and the chief authority over all educational matters. Its functions are administrative as well as educational,

and hard words are sometimes used about its administrative inflexibility and "bureaucratic" tendency. But it has to be borne in mind that one of the first functions of every Government Department is to act as an outpost to the Treasury. As long as Parliament makes grants of money from the taxes, the Government are bound to see that that money is properly spent. No doctrine of national government can evade the constitutional bedrock position of State supremacy. Thus regulations are necessary, and inspection is necessary. To what extent the Board of Education might give a greater discretion to Local Authorities in the expenditure of Government aid is another question altogether, a question which Parliament itself alone can decide.

It may be possible to justify the criticisms sometimes levelled at the Board of Education concerning its many statistical forms. But here Parliament is really responsible. Parliament expects to be provided with the details, even the minutiae, of progress in all Government departments, and these have to be systematically collected year by year. If the member for Little Pedlington puts down the question, "To ask the President of the Board of Education if the proportion of red-haired children in Elementary Schools is the same in the towns as in the villages of the county, and, if there is any difference, will he say what steps his Staff have taken to determine the causes of that difference?" the President has no option, I believe, but to answer. That the Board of Education's annual returns do not include details of the colours of children's hair is probably because it has not yet occurred to the member for Little Pedlington to make the subject one for amusing the House. Since Government Departments are compelled to devote time to the accumulation and the checking of all sorts of details, statistical and financial, the time they have to spare for serious administration is seriously curtailed.

Next to the Board of Education come the Local Authorities. If these are very small, their experience is too slight to enable them to do their work effectively. If they are large, they are bound to introduce regulations: it would be impossible to let every school be a law unto itself. And thus the charge of bureaucracy is made again. All depends on the personal equations of the Authorities and of their officers. In enlightened areas, regulations are administered with such elasticity that they are seldom felt to be irksome.

Lastly there are the schools themselves. How much independence may be left to them? That depends on the authorities in control. A wise Authority leaves a wise headmaster a very free hand. But a single bad blunder made by a headmaster may lead to a new regulation curtailing cherished privileges in all the schools of the area.

Machinery there must be. This will run smoothly enough if those in charge will keep it well oiled and will use an oil that will not clog. The time has gone by when administration connotes unbending uniformity. The lessening circles of responsibility from the Board to the school have necessarily to be recognized, but it is fairly safe to say that those now in

authority, whether at Whitehall or in the local areas, recognize fully that the real interests of education must not be sacrificed to the gods of the administrative machine.

The Hadow Report refers to two administrative difficulties.

The first, the minor one, concerns the voluntary schools. A Local Authority anxious to develop post-primary education often finds itself hampered by the fact that some of the Elementary Schools in its area are not directly under its control. In such a case, the organization of the area can be made effective only by much good-will on both sides. The Hadow Report says, "It is our earnest hope that the voluntary societies and managers of non-Provided Schools will aid to the best of their power the development of post-primary schools."

The second, the major one, concerns the differentiated control of Elementary and Higher Education in the ordinary boroughs and in the larger urban districts. An unenlightened small Authority for Elementary Education might set up its own Central School and send to it all its ablest children instead of sending them to the Secondary School established by the larger Authority responsible for higher education. It would be disastrous if the petty jealousies of a country town should lead to the denial of educational privileges to such children. The country towns should remember that the County Authority have to devise a scheme of higher education not only for itself but one which can be fitted into the systems of all the independent minor authorities within its borders. The Hadow Report considered these difficulties and would have recommended the abolition of all Authorities for Elementary Education only, and the transference of their powers to the larger Authorities, but strong political opposition to such a course would have been inevitable, and it was recognized that the suggestion was impracticable. In the end the suggestion was made that Authorities should, by close co-operation, come to mutual agreements about the educational provision to be made in the smaller areas. The Report did, however, foreshadow the necessity of further legislation and the creation of new provincial Authorities.

The "Code" and the Higher Primary Curriculum

The existing Code is in marked contrast to the Codes of the past, inasmuch as it leaves a very large measure of freedom in the choice of subjects to be taught. The Board of Education Circular 1375, dealing with the revised Code, says, "Certain subjects of the curriculum are required by statute, as, for instance, the provision of 'practical instruction'. The list of additional subjects hitherto included in the Code probably represents a general consensus of opinion throughout the country as to the subjects suitable for children of elementary school age, but it is, and has long been, open to the Authority to vary the curriculum, and there seems to be no sufficient reason for retaining in Grant Regulations a list which derives its authority from general agreement rather than from any exercise of the

Board's statutory powers." "Detailed comments or advice will in future be confined to the volume of 'Suggestions for teachers and others concerned in the work of Public Elementary Schools'."

In these "Suggestions", the subjects discussed in detail are, English, History, Geography, Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science, Music, Drawing, practical subjects, and physical training. The Hadow Report (pp. 188-247) also makes useful suggestions, and includes in its list of subjects Religious Instruction and a Modern Foreign language. The Report also says (p. 88), "The courses of instruction in the last two years of the post-primary schools, retaining a considerable proportion of pupils up to the age of 15+, should not be vocational. At the same time, however, the treatment of subjects such as history, geography, elementary mathematics, and a modern language, should be 'practical' in the broadest sense, and directly and obviously brought into relation with the facts of everyday experience. The practical applications of subjects such as elementary mathematics and drawing, as adjuncts and instruments of thought in the study of other subjects, e.g. handicrafts, geography, elementary physics, and biology, might with advantage be emphasized. Thus, the courses of instruction, though not merely vocational or utilitarian, would aim at linking up the school work with interests arising from the social and industrial environment of the pupils."

There is likely to be considerable differences of opinion about the teaching of a foreign language in schools with a leaving age of 15+. The questions which will inevitably be asked are, Is it worth while? Can a reasonable standard of attainments be reached? Can children of 15 be taught to speak or to write French or to become interested in French literature? Certain it is that even in the best Secondary Schools it takes five or six or more years to reach a really satisfactory standard.

In the Secondary School, "with its much larger school life and with its much older children, the teachers of the different subjects may properly begin trains of investigation that cannot be completed until the age of 18, whereas in Central Schools, where trains of investigation must be completed at 15+, the aims will necessarily be different in scope and be much more restricted.

CHAPTER V

Different Types of Schools

The three grades of education, school education before 11, school education after 11, and university education, might accurately be described by the terms *primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary*, as these terms are self-explanatory. But the term *tertiary* is rarely used, and in this country the term *primary school* has never had any statutory authority. Instead of

primary the term *elementary* has been used, a word suggestive, of course, of "elements" or "fundamentals". Thus at the present time there is a rough and ready distinction drawn between the grades of education by means of the terms *elementary*, *secondary*, and *university*.

Hitherto, "Elementary" Schools have included not only those of the ordinary type providing education up to 14, but also "Higher Elementary" Schools, "Higher Grade" Schools, "Central" Schools, "Senior" Schools, "Higher Tops", and others. At the present time—a transition time—the majority of the Elementary Schools are of the old type, but a rapidly increasing number of the new types already referred to are being established, viz. *Junior* (to 11+) and *Senior* (to 14+), some of the Senior Schools being for *selected* children up to 15+ and then called *Central*. It does not seem yet to have been decided whether the term *Modern* shall be applied officially to Senior and Central Schools.

The old terms *Higher Elementary*, *Higher Grade*, *Organized Science*, *Middle*, *Commercial*, as distinctive names for schools, are virtually dead.

Private School is a self-explanatory term, though not used officially. Private Schools may be either Elementary or Secondary. A Private School is essentially a non-grant-earning school, since it is conducted for private profit.

Most of the *Preparatory* Schools are Private Schools. They are schools with an age-range from about 8 or 9 to 13+, preparing boys for the Public Schools or for the Navy. There are similar schools for girls. They may perhaps be described as Primary, but not Elementary, inasmuch as they teach Latin and Mathematics to a fairly advanced standard. The word "Preparatory" has, however, a definite connotation and might be retained.

The *Public Secondary Schools* are quite distinct from Private Schools of all kinds. They include all the so-called "Public" Schools, though not all the Public Schools are grant-earning. As already stated, some of the Public Schools, Winchester College and Eton College, for instance, preserve their original names; others have dropped the term "grammar", for instance Harrow and Rugby, and use simply the name of the locality. This tendency is creeping into schools of a lower social status.

To the uninitiated, the term "Public School" is puzzling. In 1861 we hear officially of the "9 great Public Schools"; in 1869, of 7. The "Head Masters' Conference" Schools now number 140, including 5 in Scotland, and these are generally looked upon as the Public Schools. The "Head Masters' Conference" was founded in 1869. "The object of the Conference is the discussion of educational questions which affect such schools as those in close connexion with the universities of Oxford and Cambridge." Admission to the Conference is largely determined by the nature of the scheme governing the school and by the number of undergraduates, educated at the school, resident at Oxford and Cambridge. When a Head Master is admitted to the Conference, his school *ipso facto* becomes a "Public" School. The term "Public School" is entirely unofficial, and has come to denote social exclusiveness rather than

any special educational merit. Nevertheless, there are at least as many degrees of exclusiveness even amongst the 140, though all the Head Masters are probably ready enough to admit that scores of other schools, if not hundreds, are educationally indistinguishable from their own. It would be an act both gracious and just to merge the Conference in the Head Masters' Association and to adopt a common label for all schools engaged in the same grade of work.

The Public Secondary Schools also include the Grammar Schools, the Municipal Secondary Schools, and (in Wales) the Intermediate Schools. The term "High School" is confined for the most part to the Public Schools for girls, though again this is a term occasionally adopted for schools of a lower status. A few of the Public Schools for girls, like the Public Schools for boys, have no distinctive title save the locality (for instance, Sherborne and Wycombe Abbey), or perhaps the founder's name.

Teachers for Central Schools

A large proportion of the younger teachers have passed through Secondary Schools before proceeding to the University or the Training College, and an increasingly large number are obtaining university degrees. There ought therefore to be no difficulty in staffing Central Schools as these are established. The one great difference between teachers of Central Schools and those of the older type of Elementary Schools is that the former are, in a very large measure, specialist teachers, and will devote most of their time to teaching their own subjects. A Central School will not be a place for a teacher with a small range of knowledge of numerous subjects.

It may be that, as time goes on, a graduate qualification or its equivalent will be looked for in all teachers in senior schools, though the first essential by way of a minimum qualification for a responsible teacher in any grade of school is, ultimately, likely to be enrolment on the official Register of Teachers, which carries with it membership of the Royal Society of Teachers, and the right to use the distinctive letters, M.R.S.T. Just as the responsible medical practitioner is expected to have his name enrolled on the Official Register of the General Medical Council and to satisfy the minimum professional requirements, whatever higher qualifications he may happen to possess, so it may be required of the responsible practising teacher that he shall be enrolled on the Official Register of Teachers, and therefore a member of the Royal Society of Teachers.

In all professions there are subordinate grades of workers, and it is likely, too, that, in the profession of teaching, it will continue to be necessary to employ semi-qualified persons, but these should always do their work under the responsible direction of fully qualified members of the profession.

Teachers of the new schools will inevitably be taken to task by the outside critics. These unconsciously unfriendly people are apt to lecture the workaday teacher with an air of superiority that is generally more

irritating than persuasive. They chastise Universities, Secondary Schools, Elementary Schools, Head Masters generically, Inspectors, and Administrators: apparently forgetting that these terms represent men of like passions with themselves, sometimes even of comparable intelligence; and that but for the grace of God they themselves might have had to wrestle with the problems which they solve so easily. If the oracles would strive more to stimulate our faith, and not to quench it, we should probably be led to bolder experiment.

ORGANIZATION AND CURRICULUM

BY

F. T. HOWARD, M.A.

AND

STANLEY H. WATKINS, M.A., Ph.D.

University College of the South West, Exeter

ORGANIZATION AND CURRICULUM

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The theory of the "clean cut" at eleven years of age is now generally accepted. It is the principle upon which the reorganization of our primary and post-primary education is proceeding. Stated briefly, it means that all children at eleven years of age and over, who hitherto have been regarded as the subjects of primary education, should be transferred to new schools and be given a new type of education called post-primary or secondary. It is believed that at, or about, eleven years of age vital changes in the physical and mental character of the child produce a new outlook and necessitate a change in the nature of the training and instruction he receives. In the future, then, education for the great majority of children is to be divided into primary and secondary grades. The child of eleven to fifteen years needs not merely different treatment, but a different type of subject-matter. He is looking forward, dimly perhaps, but with increasing definiteness, to his future vocation. The proposal to raise the school leaving age to fifteen years has accelerated the changes in the organization of the schools which this theory would demand. For the school must fit the child not merely for his life interest but also for his life work.

Post-primary Types of Schools

Already, as is the English custom, there had been spasmodic attempts to meet the demands of these future workers. Private enterprise and public authorities have in the nineteenth century thrown up many experiments in adolescent education. It is this somewhat haphazard zeal for individual effort which explains the great variety in the types of schools which now exist. It is not necessary to enumerate them in detail here.¹ The stimulus created by the passing of the Education Act of 1870, the appearance of better teachers, and the tendency to attend more regularly and to stay longer at school, were all responsible for a steady improvement

¹ See *The Education of the Adolescent, Chapter I* (H.M. Stationery Office)

in work and a gradual widening of the curriculum. Encouraged by the State, the School Boards established senior divisions which organized wide courses for pupils from ten to eleven onwards and which also earned more grant.

In the larger towns, schools were appearing which offered advanced instruction. These higher grade schools have developed, despite the Cockerton judgment, into higher elementary schools and later the selective schools of London, Manchester, and elsewhere. In 1902 local education authorities were allowed to establish their own secondary schools, and in 1918 were made responsible for the comprehensive organization of the educational organization of their areas.

Out of this welter of experiment then have developed the following types of schools:

- (a) Selective central schools—the successors to the higher elementary schools.
- (b) The non-selective central schools.
 - (i) In separate buildings, independently organized.
 - (ii) In the same premises but independently organized and with the junior classes under the same head teacher.
- (c) The senior schools taking pupils from ten and a half to eleven years and onwards.
 - (i) Sometimes mixed.
 - (ii) With girls and boys organized separately.
- (d) The junior schools, usually mixed, ending about eleven years of age.
- (e) The upper school for pupils between seven and fourteen years of age, either mixed or with girls and boys apart. Occasionally an infant division is attached under the same head teacher.
- (f) The separate infant school.

Such are the diverse institutions which have to be fitted into the broad divisions of primary and post-primary education. With such differences to account for it is clear that the “clean cut” has much to commend it. But the division having been made, what sort of education is to be given in these post-primary schools? Already secondary education has received a distinct meaning: the secondary school is not, for example, a vocational school as is a trade school. The instruction it gives is influenced largely by university degree and adapted to pupils of special ability; but what of the large numbers of children of eleven to fifteen years of age for whom the university is but a dream? Are they to receive this type of secondary education? Obviously it would be unwise, even foolish, to suggest it. Thus reorganization in the post-primary stages is to be based, in the first instance, upon intellectual capacity. This is not an ideal form even if the methods of grading are to be entirely trusted. The grading of children into grammar, selective, and non-selective schools is administratively simple, but it creates distinctions between the schools which it will be

very difficult to break down. In some Welsh counties, the secondary schools are to be enlarged to admit this new army of children and the curriculum is to be widened to meet their needs. In others, centrally situated schools are to be established which will eventually become secondary. These are simple and interesting solutions. But in England, other ideas will probably prevail. The secondary tradition is strong, not easily given up, and compromise will seek out new paths. No new system of education will emerge. Rather will the existing institutions be adapted to meet the new situation.

It is with that principle in view that the following pages have been written. To plan ideal schools for ideal pupils in ideal situations is an interesting and at times profitable occupation. But that is not our purpose. In any form of educational reorganization regard must be had to the experience of the past, though its influence should not weigh too heavily. The training in the new schools will be secondary in character and in status, but it must admit of ample differentiation. It has to hand on the experience, the wisdom, of the past generations, and at the same time prepare, sometimes in definite form, for the future.

Future Development

We have therefore attempted to bring together typical examples of post-primary schemes of instruction which should throw light upon present problems and aid the teacher faced with the immediate task of planning schemes for his new pupils. Secondary education for all is no empty ideal if it be interpreted wisely. But it cannot be built afresh. It must profit from the past and shape its future accordingly. That future will see a great development of secondary schools of varying types which will all have, as foundation, a primary education up to eleven years. So "central schools and junior technical schools have a future before them if they are organized frankly as part of the secondary system".¹ The rate of progress will vary greatly as will the type of work attempted, but "if the direction is agreed upon, the speed at which different stages on the road are to be reached is a question which must be solved in the light of the varying circumstances of different authorities".²

CHAPTER II

From Junior School to Post-primary

The removal of the older children from the junior school at the age of eleven years will enable the head teacher to organize his school so that the needs of the younger children may be more adequately considered. It is important, therefore, to be clear as to what is to be the function of the

¹ *Secondary Education for All*, R. H. Tawney. ² *Ibid.*

junior school, a problem more easily set than answered. For some place all stress upon the physical development of the child, housing him in open buildings and giving him open-air instruction. Others would regard the child's harmonious development, fed by his own interests and speeded by his own desires and capacity, as the most important factor. But we are dealing with actualities. It is true, method and treatment should conform to the mental and physical development of the child. It is reasonable to expect that a certain body of knowledge should be acquired before the age of eleven years, together with the development of skill in various directions, and it is not difficult to pay due attention to the physical and social needs of the child as his intellectual training proceeds.

Age of Entry

It is important to remember that the junior school receives the bulk of its pupils from the infant school. During their passage through the latter these children have gained valuable experience. The standard of attainment is good, but it is perforce uneven. Indeed the characteristic feature of children of this age is the great difference in their mental and physical development. Yet in his passage through the infant school the child has become less absorbed in himself; he now shares the interests of his fellows, realizes the discipline of the group; in short, he has dropped into school ways. The normal child will also have overcome the initial difficulties of reading and counting—he may indeed find pleasure in reading alone a simple story book or in solving easy problems by concrete aids. He is usually able to talk freely and is quick to acquire and to use new words. “Make-believe” still plays a great part in his life, though it is now limited to a matter of factness which criticizes events and in simple fashion analyses experiences. It is a period when learning by rote is at its easiest and best. Physically he is sufficiently developed to feel his own independence. He is capable of short periods of keen concentration. He has reached a stage when practical interests predominate and when his feeling for companionship makes him wish for class as well as individual treatment. Hence organized games, handwork, and dramatic work keenly appeal to him.

Opinions differ still as to what should be the proper age of entry into the junior school. Some local authorities think the break should come at seven years. Others, however, and they are the majority, believe that a longer playway is required and that the age of eight years is not too late to begin life in the junior school. Certain it is that the break should not be too abrupt and that the methods of the infant school should prevail at least in the lower standards of the junior school.

The Junior School Course

The child having entered the junior school, what training should he receive? We are not concerned here with the methods and technique of this training, but rather with the extent and nature of its content, and

this depends upon the nature and capacity of the child and upon the demands made by the post-primary schools. Some authorities have endeavoured to indicate what should be the range of knowledge which a primary school child should possess, even though the subjects tested on leaving be limited to English and arithmetic. A characteristic report is that prepared by the teachers and education officials of Kent¹ as an indication of what might reasonably be expected of a child about to leave school at the age of eleven years. It runs:

1. It is understood that the necessary arrangements will be made in all cases for religious and moral instruction.

2. It is recognized that good manners, care of person, cleanliness and tidiness will be provided for in all schools.

3. In all schools there should be great attention to English, spoken and written, as the vehicle of thought.

The rest of the curriculum may conveniently be dealt with under the following heads:

(a) Language, including English literature and the arts of writing and reading.

(b) Handicraft, including needlework and drawing.

(c) Mathematics, including the elementary study of number and space.

(d) History, geography, and nature study.

(e) Music.

(f) Physical training.

(a) English will include the intelligent reading and learning by heart of suitable verse and prose and training in speech and writing.

(i) The training of the voice in speech, and a simple study of the way in which the sounds of spoken English are produced, should receive attention in all schools.

(ii) As soon as the mechanical difficulties of reading are mastered, a large selection of good literature should be placed within the reach of pupils, whether for school or home enjoyment. It should not be overlooked that one of the objects of English teaching is to familiarize the pupil with the use of books.

(iii) An anthology of English verse for children should find a place in every class.

(iv) Such a thorough grounding should be given in composition, oral and written, as will enable the children to express their thoughts concisely and clearly. Frequent practice should be given in easy oral and written composition on familiar and imaginative subjects, and in the answering of questions in writing on the subject-matter of other lessons.

(v) Children should be given such an understanding, without formal definitions, of the functions of words in sentences as will enable them to understand corrections in their speech and composition. This will properly include an introduction to simple analysis.

(b) Handwork should deal with as wide a variety of materials as possible, and should include paper-cutting, carton or cardboard work, raffia, the use of strip wood and plastic materials, basketry, weaving and needlework and drawing.

(i) Needlecraft should follow the lines of the syllabus of the Kent Education Committee.

¹ *Kent Education Gazette*, August, 1929, pp. 46-7.

(ii) Drawing with crayon, brush, and pencil will be used as a means of representing simple objects and in connexion with Nature Study. Provision should also be made for imaginative drawing.

(c) Simple Mathematics, i.e. the elementary study of number and space, should include:

(i) The four Simple and Compound Rules, Simple Fractions, Ratio, and easy questions in Percentages.

(ii) Decimals, so taught that notation and the place value of digits are made clear from the beginning.

(iii) Simple exercises in mensuration, dealing with rectangular surfaces, practical work being taken whenever possible.

Questions should be as far as possible in problem form.

Mental Arithmetic should be used freely throughout the course.

Ciphering with fairly large numbers should be used occasionally to secure accuracy and skill in manipulation.

Use should be made of symbols, as a preparation for Algebra.

(d) History should include the story of great persons who have influenced the progress of the world and studies of the British people at different periods, their mode of life, their social relations, their habits and customs, illustrated as far as possible from the locality. Such attention should be paid to simple chronological teaching by the use of time lines, &c., as will enable the scholars to form an intelligent idea of the sequence of the various periods.

Geography.—The children should have a simple, descriptive knowledge of the main areas of the globe, and of their chief occupations, and be familiar with the discoveries of a few well-known explorers. Detailed study should be left to a later stage. Children will be expected to have a knowledge of the geography of the British Isles, with special reference to Kent, and to have a special study of their own neighbourhood.

Elementary Science should be taught chiefly by directed observation in connexion with nature study, and the simple phenomena of everyday life. The particular courses of nature study will depend upon the interests and individuality of the teacher. It might properly include not only the life histories of a few typical plants and insects, but a study of the sky, rocks, soils, weathers, &c.

(e) Vocal Music and Musical Appreciation.—The instruction should provide for the teaching of both notations.

(f) Physical Training should be in accordance with the new syllabus of the Board of Education.

It will be noted that the subjects are grouped into six sections, an attempt to help the teacher to form a well-balanced time-table. For at this stage the subjects should not be treated in isolation. The world of the child is a unified if vague and undefined one. So the time-table must not dominate. Elasticity is essential both in regard to the grouping of subjects and the time allotted to them.

The suggestions set out above, though based on experience, should not, however, be accepted without due regard to local conditions. Schools vary in size and the number of the staff. There are many rural schools with less than fifty children between the ages of 3-14 years, staffed by a headmistress, who is helped by a supplementary teacher for the infants and Standard I. There are, on the other hand, many urban schools in which each age group has its own teacher. In the smaller schools it is the middle part of the school which tends to suffer. Newcomers must be taught their letters and easy counting: the oldest pupils must be given individual work which calls for careful criticism and revision. The junior

classes, on the other hand, may receive sufficient attention to keep the three R's progressing, but the wider training implied by the syllabus as a whole cannot be provided. The pupils may gain something from the oral lessons given to them in common with their elders, but they will lack all the training through action which is so important at that stage. Even in the large village schools of 75-100 children, the junior classes are usually taught by a supplementary or uncertificated teacher with little experience and slight skill, whose stay is often too brief to enable him to enter into sympathetic contact with the school and its inhabitants. Too often the result is ill-assorted content and the overloading of detail. So the child's mind is stored with many undigested and unrelated facts. In some cases the head teacher may improve conditions by giving regular oral instruction in general subjects to the whole school. In the smaller schools some compromise is essential. The best method, perhaps, is to group the upper and lower classes for oral instruction, though a common practice is to organize alternative syllabuses for succeeding years.

On the other hand, in large schools of seven or eight standards, there is considerable danger lest the desire to form strong "top" standards makes the organization too rigid and formal. In such cases the younger children are treated as if passing through a necessary stage, but one which should be shortened as far as possible. Thus instruction becomes formal and regular. The change between infant and junior school method is sharply defined and the freedom of the former becomes the stricter, more formal discipline of the latter. This is unwise and against the interests of the children. It is common experience that the entire separation of the juniors from the seniors results in less formal teaching, in the encouragement of an atmosphere of freedom and spontaneity, whilst more attention is and can be paid to individual work, to physical training, and the more concrete practical aspects of the child's environment.

Change in Child's Development

The chief importance of the now generally accepted theory that the age of eleven marks a definite change in the development of the child, a change which should be accompanied by differences in the organization of the schools, lies in the fact that it places the main stress upon the psychological development of the child and the necessity for organizing the school life to meet its needs. Yet it must always be remembered that just as there is no distinct break between the infant and the junior school, so also there is from the child's point of view no natural gulf between primary and secondary education.

Whilst, however, all may agree that the age of eleven years is a convenient one to mark the division between primary and secondary stages, it is not so easy to put theory into practice. It is true that one of the advantages of this division is that the senior school will not in future have its lower classes disturbed by the burden of preparation for central or secondary schools. A more accurate definition of work will be possible.

In the junior school Standard V will be the natural limit for the work of the school. In the senior and central schools it will be the start of a new type of instruction and organization. A certain latitude must of course be given to the teachers in transferring their children. The clever child should not be kept waiting in the junior school merely because he is under the age of transference unless his physical development is retarded. But administratively the problem is not an easy one to solve. Even if it were possible to transfer children immediately to the existing secondary schools and if, in consequence, secondary education were made free, the existing schools have not sufficient accommodation, and there must still remain a long period during which the older children will have to be accommodated in the central or the extended elementary school. The reorganization of buildings now begun will facilitate the establishment of senior schools for the older pupils in the towns. In the rural areas the problem is further complicated by the difficulties of transport. For some years then progress must inevitably involve compromise between the existing system and the new outlook. But that compromise should be given strict limits. Buildings are not essential elements of instruction. Pupils may be housed in makeshift huts and yet receive secondary education of the best type. If the proper type of teacher is appointed and a decent minimum of equipment and apparatus supplied, there is no reason why both senior and central schools should not take their place in any recognized form of secondary education.

The Central School Ideal

With the many who hold that secondary education should be available for all children over the age of eleven years, the central school does not find favour.¹ It is often held that this type of school was founded to provide a pseudo-secondary type of education for the child of poor parents who are anxious to give a continued secondary education to their children. Moreover, the position of the central schools has not been made any easier by the provisions of the Education Act of 1918 and by the introduction of the Burnham Scale of salaries. Since 1918, central schools must be free; since the introduction of the Burnham Scale, their teachers must rank for pay, not with secondary, but with primary teachers. So to show their worth many of these schools have sought to emulate the secondary schools by seeking success in the field of examination. This has been doubly unfortunate. In many cases it has unduly influenced the curriculum and in others it has isolated the school from the community it serves, and this state of things for children about to follow non-professional careers is a serious defect. Support has also been given to this view by the limitation of the term secondary to a particular type of school. Yet the secondary school, as interpreted by regulation, may and often does not satisfy even local conditions. The course of study is predominantly academic, its pupils being trained in the main to pass the School Leaving

¹ See *Secondary Education for All*, Tawney, Chapter V.

Certificate at 16+ and, two years later, the Higher Certificate. Except in the rural areas, there is little work taken before the examination stage which is designed to foster practical interests or to meet the future needs of the pupils.

It was partly to remedy this that the Hadow Committee recommended that all education from eleven to eighteen years should be frankly recognized as secondary, though within this secondary education there may be several divisions. The recognized secondary schools were to be termed grammar schools: central schools, whether selective or non-selective, were to be known as modern schools, and the upper sections of a large school separately organized for children over eleven years of age as a senior school or class. Unfortunately public opinion does not appear to be ready to accept this nomenclature.

On the other hand there is ample evidence that the central schools contain many pupils quite equal in general capacity to those of the secondary schools. They are picked children, taught by specialist teachers chosen in an open market, and the school works at a pace far beyond that of the average primary school. Such schools abound in London where secondary education provides only a small number of places in proportion to the child population. They are also fairly numerous in Manchester. In most parts of England, however, ample secondary school provision is often taken to mean that there is no place for the selective central school. It may well be that the type of pupil produced by a four years' course or a six years' course in a secondary school ending in a university examination will meet the needs of industry equally as well as the product of a four years' course which has a realistic and practical trend in the last two years. If this were so, an increase in the number of free places and some elasticity in regard to the leaving age would be all that was necessary. But differences in ability, in the nature of the pupil's future occupation, and in the financial capacity of the education authorities make such a simple solution, for some years at least, rather a dream than a reality.

Some education authorities have maintained that it is wrong to differentiate between pupils. Even if the selective central school offered better facilities to the future foreman and leading citizen, it is better that they should grow up in the closest contact with those whom later they would direct and lead. This, however, is not the prevailing view. There has always been "a natural tendency" to throw up experiments in post-primary education, "the striving of a highly industrial society to evolve a type of scheme analogous to and yet distinct from the secondary school".¹ At present the selective central school differs from the secondary school in that it is free; it is staffed with teachers who for the most part have had primary school experience. The curriculum, in the last two years at least, also reveals a general bias towards industrial and commercial needs. As a general rule such schools have hitherto avoided preparation for recognized examinations. In so doing they have been able to enter

¹ *The Education of the Adolescent*, p. 35.

closely into the life and to meet the demands of the community they serve whilst preserving for themselves an enviable freedom in the organization of their work. But our modern complex society requires recognized, possibly uniform standards. It should be possible to devise a form of certification which, whilst avoiding the acknowledged evils of our secondary school examinations, may yet satisfy the employer and at the same time maintain a standard equal to that of the secondary schools.¹

Significance of Reorganization

The significance of the new methods of reorganization, then, lies *first* in the general effort to end the unsatisfactory loose system by which children are grouped together for three or four years at the tops of small primary schools, very frequently ploughing over the same field which they have covered before and working under conditions which do not provide progress in instruction. Instead, it is proposed to organize a general scheme of secondary education of great diversity of kind, but similar in outlook both in the type of curriculum and in the quality of staffing and equipment.

In the *second* place, the new system when properly established will, in the majority of cases, make a sharper distinction between the professional training characteristic of the secondary schools and the training for office or workshop which is to occupy part of the work of the average central school. This distinction will arise through differences of function, not of status, and it is here that it is well to define our boundaries. The selective central school will for some time occupy the untilled territory between the two provinces of the professional and the skilled and unskilled worker, and a clearer definition of the aim of each of these provinces has now become imperative for administrator and teacher.

Thirdly—and here, perhaps, experience speaks more uncertainly—efforts are now being made to indicate the kind of course which should be taken by the child about to enter on his life's career. A liberal education is essential, but may it not also liberalize work? And if so, how is this training to be planned? For expert opinion is by no means agreed that the training, which, as far as the engineering branches are concerned, is fairly well established, is equally so clear in regard to the building or chemical industries.²

Until closer relations between the schools and industry are established it will happen, as in London, that a proportion of pupils trained for industry will find their way into commercial life. In this field there is ample scope for free and valuable experiment. No general rule can be formulated except that, as the Hadow Report points out,³ the introduction of a bias, if not made disproportionate, and especially if it is subordinate to the main aims of the curriculum, is not unhealthy.

¹ Dr William Edwards proposes the abolition of the Pass Certificate and the substitution of a certified record. See *The School Leaving Certificate Examination, A New Proposal*. by Dr. William Edwards (Western Mail Ltd., Cardiff).

² *The Education of the Adolescent*, pp. 112-121.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 121.

As yet few education authorities have found it possible to adopt one method of organization. Some indeed are using modifications of all the forms suggested by the Hadow Report. London has always to consider the lines of traffic in any regrouping of their schools. Rutlandshire has been unable to apply the general scheme to the county as a whole. In other towns strong preference has been expressed for the organization of senior classes. Even in the same area, teachers will have ample opportunity for experiment with different types of schools.¹ As may be expected, there is throughout England and Wales considerable divergence both of opinion and of practice, each area as far as is possible adapting the schools to its own needs.

CHAPTER III

Selective Central Schools

The choice of children for the selective central schools requires very careful consideration. Selection by examination was the method fixed by regulation in 1900 for the higher elementary schools. Later the examination held to choose pupils for the secondary schools was used for the selection of the central school pupil. But often this resulted in the entry into the central schools of pupils who, by merit fit to enter the secondary schools, were through poverty or lack of accommodation unable to do so. In London, children were classified on the results of examination and those above a certain percentage were admitted at once. Should this number be insufficient to fill the vacant places, the head teacher of the central school was then permitted to visit the schools within his supply area and, after consultation with the teachers and consideration of the pupils' work, to select candidates. This method has much to commend it and deserves a much wider trial. Some authorities have tried to fill their selective schools from pupils chosen after a voluntary examination, but have found the supply too irregular: others have relied entirely on the judgment of the teachers, and have found very unevenly distributed levels of attainment. Indeed, when later, examinations were introduced, more intelligent children were found still remaining in the feeder schools. The question is by no means solved, for much wider experiment is still necessary. Simplicity in organization and some general uniformity in the progress of the pupils from year to year are, however, essential to satisfactory work in these schools. As a general rule, it will, we think, be accepted that, for the present at least, this type of school is designed for the more intelligent of those pupils in the primary schools who are not successful in entering the secondary schools.² When numbers are few

¹ A description of one such experiment at the Portland Tophill School, Dorset is given on pp. 94-97.

² Education in 1928, Cmd. 3307, p. 23.

and it is difficult to maintain even one type of school, the pupils might with advantage be drafted to the existing secondary school which should be organized to meet the needs of both groups.¹

Classification by Entry

Ultimately the classification of the pupils entering these schools will probably be decided upon the results of properly planned tests and upon the school records. But that is not yet, and at present many schools are driven by circumstances into grading the pupils upon the results of the entrance examinations. Others give simple tests when the pupils enter the school. As the junior schools differ both in method and outlook, the first term in the new school is, not uncommonly, devoted to a general standardization of method and of work. Usually careful attention is given to individual pupils, so that those children who have real ability may be discovered and encouraged. Classification, therefore, becomes general only at the end of the first term. Common, also, is the custom to give particular attention to the elements of English, spelling, punctuation, and handwriting. Script might well at this stage be changed to cursive writing. The elements of grammar should be taught, and, in arithmetic, methods of subtraction and division and of the setting out of problems should be regularized.

This preparatory work done, the work for the next two sessions may now be planned. Generally the syllabus begins at what might be termed a low Standard V level. But advance is rapid and, with careful tuition, the pupils soon adapt themselves. By the end of the second year the good selective school should be well on the way with the work of Standard VII. Where a second language, such as French or Spanish or German, is introduced, the pace may not be so rapid, though if, as many schools do, the language is allotted a large number of hours per week, progress should be well maintained. In some schools pupils who show no aptitude for the language are allowed to drop it at the end of the first or second year.

Bias in Education

To speak of a "bias" in education, or as the Kent Education Committee have termed it, "a liaison with industry", is at once to invite the criticism that the pupils' general training is being sacrificed to his future vocation. Yet there is room for a training which, while it does not neglect the general foundations, may yet give "a fresh interest to the old subjects by showing their bearing on that life on which the pupils are about to enter".² This may well differ from industry to industry. It is easier to prepare for the engineering trades than it is for the retail business life, though the latter touches life at many vital points. But it must be remembered that, as machinery replaces hand labour in the workshop, so the possibility of a

¹ See Circular 168 (Wales), *Education of Older Children in Wales*.

² *The Organization of Advanced Elementary Instruction in Scotland in 1913*. Selected Reports: Board of Education, No. 22, p. 18.

vocational training in the stricter sense of the word becomes more remote. Nor can any narrow line be drawn between what may or may not be vocational. Instruction in needlework may be regarded as a preparation for the dressmaker or seamstress, just as cookery and housecraft may equip the future domestic servant. Two considerations should be taken into account in determining whether particular processes are deserving of incorporation when subjects are under review. First, have they any bearing upon local interests? and secondly, can the teacher link them easily and naturally with the general course of training? And in so doing, too narrow a view should not be taken. In framing a course of study, more than one approach to a knowledge of science may be given. The motor-car and the wireless instrument have revolutionized life. Twenty-five years ago it was said that electricity had two interpretations, one in the educational laboratory, the other in the workshop. To-day many boys make their own wireless sets and test their theory by the simple process of successful working.

Not even when subjects are taken with direct vocational intent need it always be assumed that no educational value is present. Formal book-keeping may be too specialized, yet the keeping of simple accounts includes with advantage a training in clearness of plan and accuracy in calculation. There is also some justification in the view that subjects need not be taken to too advanced a stage. A training in pianoforte playing, as Sir Oliver Lodge points out, may be useful if carried sufficiently far to give pleasure to the performer though it need not make him a professional player.¹ An illustration of this is seen in the county of Hertford, where no attempt is made to teach the children agriculture. They are, however, taken regularly to farms where they are given first-hand acquaintance with the technique of farming. Formal instruction goes no farther, but the interest aroused in the children is, as the writers can testify from similar visits in industrial areas, a lifelong one.

The kind of bias then will depend very largely upon the nature of the industries around the school and upon the experience of the teachers in those industries. In a rural area the teacher may go a long way, for it is not difficult to experiment with artificial manures, the grafting and budding of trees, and the production of crops. Above all, however, it is important to remember that the curriculum as a whole must not be sacrificed to any particular form of training, though the treatment of the various subjects of the curriculum should respond sympathetically to the local environment.² The teachers in a central school, as in any other school of secondary rank, are selected for their knowledge of the subject as a whole, just as those of the junior trade school are chosen mainly because of their knowledge of manipulative processes. Many subjects of the curriculum will show no evidence of bias. It is in the weaving together of the component parts, so that the "general education of his pupils will

¹ *School Method and School Reform*, Lodge, Lect. II.

² *The Education of the Adolescent*, p. 119.

not be prejudiced", yet the children will be attracted towards and given instruction in their environment, it is in this combination that the teacher's skill will best be employed.

NOTE—In the official Handbook to the Education Exhibition arranged in 1923, in connexion with the Imperial Education Conference, the formation of schools in London with a bias was thus defined:

"The aim of the Central School is to provide a three- or four-years' course of continued education for older children whose parents intend them not so much for the professions, as for the skilled occupations. While it makes no pretence at giving the children any specific or vocational training, its curriculum is properly biased by the character of the main industries carried on in the surrounding district, e.g. a Central School in a large engineering or shipbuilding town will have a bias in the direction of such mathematical and practical work as will enable a boy upon leaving, readily to acquire a high degree of skill in one of the occupations of those industries; whilst a Central School situated in a large commercial town will bias its curriculum in favour of commercial studies such as foreign languages, book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, and geography, economic history and shorthand. A Central School for Girls usually has a bias in the direction of dressmaking and the domestic arts generally, as well as commonly providing training on broad and generous lines in commercial and secretarial work.

"The majority of Central Schools take a keen interest in placing their pupils in suitable employment as they leave, and in this way a traditional connexion is often created between the Central School, anxious to place its pupils in posts with prospects, and business houses anxious to secure intelligent youths of character to fill their vacancies.

"Such a connexion is valuable to the school, as it serves to keep its work upon practical lines by constant touch with the outside commercial and industrial worlds, and certainly not without value to the business firms who help to create it."

The idea of a bias in formal instruction comes from Scotland: England exploited the idea by applying it to the school as a whole. In 1903 the Scottish Education Department set up Supplementary Courses to provide for pupils not passing on to Intermediate Schools. "It is possible," they said, "to give fresh interest to the previous studies of the pupils, and at the same time to enhance their value, by putting in the forefront, at this stage, their bearing upon the probable practical requirements of the pupil's after-school life. What these requirements may be cannot, of course, be specifically determined in each particular case, but it will probably be found that sufficient definition will be given to the pupil's studies if the requirements of certain well-defined groups of occupations are kept in view."¹ These courses were not to be vocational. "Even in the so-called practical subjects of the Sixth Schedule, their Lordships' prime aim was educational. They sought not to anticipate the counting-house or the workshop so much as to awaken an interest in principles by showing their bearing on practice. The method appropriate to such a course is individual study under proper guidance rather than class teaching, and its success will be judged less by the information which the pupils have acquired than by the habits they have formed of applying what they know, finding out what they wish to know, and expressing what they have found."² The root idea of the Supplementary Course was to give "a new turn and a fresh interest to the old subjects by showing their bearing on that life on which the pupils are about to enter."³ So in some schools the emphasis was placed less upon practical subjects and more upon independent reading as prescribed in a course for English study. In England it is the practical work and its application which have been stressed.

The exact stage when a "bias" should be introduced is not clearly defined. Much turns upon the length of the course and the child's stay at school. There are teachers who prefer to introduce practical work

¹ *The Organization of Advanced Elementary Instruction in Scotland in 1913*. Selected Reports of the Board of Education, No. 22, p. 19.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19. ³ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

early and to allow the theory to grow out of experimental results. A few have attempted to plan a course centering around two foci—the humanities and the practical subjects, but with a zone of overlapping subjects such as drawing, mathematics, and science. In each case the course must be subordinate to the broader aims of the school. It is only when the teacher has carefully surveyed the industries of his school district, and has studied their underlying principles that he can determine the exact lines of development. Up to the present there has been a sharp line drawn between the duties of the trade school and the day technical school, and those of the selective central school. In the trade school we assume that the particular industry which the pupils will enter has been chosen, that the training is directed to the needs of that occupation, and if other subjects are added which are not directly concerned they will take a subordinate place. The teachers also for the most part have practical knowledge of and are skilled in the chosen trade. The pupils of a central school on the other hand will rarely know what work they will ultimately secure: all that can safely be assumed is that they will eventually join one of a large group, such as the mining, engineering, manufacturing, or agricultural occupations. It is for this reason among others that it is so essential that the cultural aims of the school shall not be subordinated to the more immediate demands of industry or commerce. The general practice of these schools, however, supports the view taken by the Hadow Committee that in a four-year course the bias (if there must be one) can very well be omitted until the age of thirteen years, that is until the commencement of the third year of school life.¹

Bias Organization

Whether a school should organize for more than one “bias” depends mainly on local needs and conditions. In London many types of central schools have been formed since 1911. Some were organized to provide a double bias, industrial and commercial; some, being mixed schools, were not only organized to give a double bias, but had to differentiate between the courses for boys and girls, that is industrial and commercial courses for boys were introduced which were different from those provided for the girls. Experience suggests that the most convenient type of selective central school which has been organized is a school for one sex with one bias only, even though the pupils do not all pass to those occupations to which the bias naturally leads. But no rigid rule need or ought to be laid down. The bias in London was determined originally by the predominant character of the occupations of the people who lived in the school area. Such a population is not settled, and as new needs arise a school must accommodate itself to the changing demands of the business world. Since the war many a school of industrial type has been compelled, as changes arose in the labour market, to add a commercial bias.

To give a clear idea of the type of organization which has been found

¹ *Education of the Adolescent*, pp. 119-120.

Of late years the differences between the two types of schools have grown less marked. From the outset the first two years were treated in much the same way, except that the commercial school included a foreign language. Since the war German has not found much favour, though in pre-war days it was occasionally taken instead of French. It should, perhaps, be noted that experience more and more points to the extreme difficulty in deciding to what side the pupil should be drafted. It is quite impossible to choose at eleven years of age and not satisfactory at thirteen. Yet, however difficult the decision, and however unsuited to the choice the child may appear to be, the ultimate results are not so disastrous as in theory we might expect. Pupils who have received an education with an industrial bias secure commercial posts and generally do well. Commercially trained children sometimes join the ranks of skilled labour. Such adaptability is, however, not surprising. If a boy or girl leaves school between the ages of fifteen and sixteen years with a sound general education, and if he has received a training which has made him alert, resourceful, and self-reliant, he may well be expected to succeed in whatever walk of life he may find himself.

So far we have spoken of bias in a general sense. The exact interpretation of bias as it affects a particular school, and the proper methods by which it may be introduced into the curriculum, must rest almost entirely with the teachers. Nor is it necessarily the immediate environment which decides the particular type of bias. Many a leading school situated in country districts has flourished because by its training it has helped its pupils to escape to the towns, a fact not unknown in Scotland. Walthamstow has to give heed to the offices of London, Sale and Altrincham to the offices and works of Manchester. Bath must think of the needs of Bristol, whilst Cheltenham, Oxford, and Weymouth are self-contained. Scarborough has in mind the demands of the sea and of visitors, Plymouth of the dockyards. Bermondsey will feed quite different industries from Woolwich or Walsall, Reading, and Coventry.

In other areas different plans have been adopted. In a dockyard town, for example, the selective central school became a junior technical school for the third and fourth years.¹ Pupils were admitted after examination at the age of eleven years, but some were allowed to enter each year, though as accommodation only allowed for the existence of five classes in the two years, no fixed number could be taken. No pupil could pass into the junior technical school before the age of thirteen years. Promotion during the first two years was rapid in order that sufficient numbers might be ready when the age bar was passed.

In pre-war days the technical school had two sides—commercial and technical, three classes to each year, two of them technical. Owing to the post-war slump in engineering, however, commercial classes predominated in the years succeeding the war. On both sides the instruction and training were rigidly utilitarian. Some pupils on the commercial

¹ This school has now become a secondary school.

side remained until nearly seventeen years to make sure of good positions. The advantage of this peculiar development, with a second break at thirteen, lay in the emphasis which could be placed upon French and mathematics in preparation for the technical school courses. The difference between the first and second and the third and fourth year courses was marked by the amount of time given to vocational work.

A similar strong leaning towards vocational work is met with occasionally in schools situated in towns where engineering works are found. A course in the elements of engineering is often organized during the third and fourth years to take the place of wood and metal work. The drawing is of a very technical character and science is limited to advanced physics, with a definite bearing upon engineering problems. The time devoted to these subjects is between a half and two-thirds of the week. Such a school, known to us in a large city, has grown from an ordinary senior into a central school, chiefly because of the development of trade classes. The school is attended largely by the sons of railway officials. It is liberally provided with science laboratories and workshops and the standard of the general equipment is high. The extent to which the work is specialized can be judged from the time per week allocated to subjects in the last year:

Technical Drawing	3 hours.
Workshop Practice	5 hours (minimum).
Practical Mathematics	(including Trigonometry, constant use of logarithm tables and gauges and much field work) 7½ hours.
Mechanics and Physics	3 hours.

Yet another class of school lays considerable emphasis upon scholastic work. Not without popular support, it has survived as a reminder of the higher grade schools of former days which prepared for the examinations of the Science and Art department. Its teachers were chosen for their personality and experience with this kind of pupil. They knew exactly the type of boys and the mental outfit which the local employer sought: they studied the examinations and they worked accordingly: their demands upon their pupils were heavy, but, outwardly, progress was rapid. In one such school some of the best pupils remained long enough to pass examinations which helped them to become privileged apprentices on the railway, whilst boys staying until sixteen years of age were given certain preferences. Occasionally, successful pupils proceed to the department of applied science in the universities. In another school of this type situated in a big town which is the dormitory for a very large city, the best pupils remain long enough to take the Oxford Senior Local Examination, and as they present seven subjects a candidate rarely fails. Others sit for the examination of the Society of Arts. In this manner, material success is certain, for the boys, with assured careers before them, find their way into the offices of the better commercial houses.

Teachers of selective central schools in places where no one industry

is dominant, or where there are few desirable posts above the level of the general worker, find some difficulty in evolving schemes to meet their pupils' needs. In one such town, a school established close contact between the schemes in science, art, and handwork. From the commencement the art was linked with art crafts and the pupils were introduced to work with more difficult material, starting, for example, with cardboard and passing on ultimately to metal work. Practical science began with the usual weights and measures, but soon developed into the investigation of the problems of ordinary life. At a later stage, when principles were fully mastered, the instruction in handwork was utilized to provide apparatus for the laboratory, or to set up working models which showed the application of principles already learned. Mathematics were of the usually accepted type: exactness was rigidly enforced and much was made of applied geometry. Many of the problems handled in the later years had practical application. But the teacher selected nothing which could not be closely related to the selected line of general instruction. Apart from this correlated group of subjects, much attention was given to games and physical training, for the school possesses a good gymnasium. The humanities were strengthened by the inclusion of French taught by a trained teacher with secondary school experience. Here then the solution is found in the close relationship of mathematics, handwork, science, and drawing and in the introduction of practical problems such as can be met with every day, first as examples for investigation from which principles can be deduced, and second as illustrations of principles taught by demonstration and in ordinary laboratory practice.

Another illustration of the same kind occurs in a school where the headmaster before planning his course of study was given the opportunity of conducting an enquiry in the factories situated in the district. As a result, he divided his staff into two groups, one interested and keen upon the teaching of English and the humanities, the other more alive to the special aspects of practical training. Each group under his supervision worked out a series of related studies. Thus drawing was taken under both heads; under the first, colourwork and imaginative drawing prevailed; under the second, drawing was used as a means to the understanding of machinery. English literature, art, and music were skilfully utilized to help the pupils in the right use of their future leisure. In mathematics and science special emphasis was laid on the practical side. Vocational training in preparation for the engineering trades was tried, but abandoned in favour of the kind of mathematics and science required in the Northern Universities Matriculation Syllabus for Engineering Courses.

Mixed Schools

We have hitherto described schools where boys alone are being trained. Mixed schools are also to be found, where boys and girls are trained together. Objection has been taken to this type, though many hold that the disadvantages of the mixed school are small in comparison to the facilities

provided by a large school, and to the inevitable increase in the number of specialist teachers. A large town school of between 450 and 500 pupils, for example, was equipped with a staff of eighteen full-time teachers all qualified by university degrees or diplomas. The staff were distributed as follows:

English	3.
History	1.
Geography	2.
Mathematics	4.
Science	3 (1 taking Mathematics as well.)
French	3.
Manual Instruction	2.

Part-time teachers were responsible for domestic instruction.

As usual, during the first two years, no bias was introduced, though French was included. Boys and girls worked separately, two classes of each being provided during the first and second years. Another class was also formed to which those unable to maintain the pace were drafted. In the third and fourth year the classes drop to one for boys and one for girls in each year. Each class, however, is broken up into sections. The general work is carefully taught and a high standard is demanded. Much time is devoted to English and French and mathematics so that the boys in the fourth year have reached matriculation standard. Considerable attention is also given to music. During the third year the girls continue their craft-work, but drop it in the fourth year when instruction becomes vocational in "the sense of preparing for office occupations in the usual subjects". About half the time is given to this. With the boys practical work is now confined to wood and metal and two sessions are set aside for it. For the rest, the bias is shown by the more practical applications used in the teaching of mathematics, science, and drawing.

In another mixed school a different procedure was followed. Again no bias is introduced for two years and the classes are mixed. At the end of the second year the school is carefully examined, every child's case investigated and the parents consulted. For the most part the quick children elect to go to the commercial side. About seven hours a week are given to book-keeping, shorthand, typewriting, and business methods, though the last subject does not find general acceptance. The boys on this side devote half a session weekly to handwork, whilst the girls pursue a well defined course in applied hygiene. The boys and girls on the industrial side continue to attend classes in the general subjects along with the others. While their companions take commercial subjects they pursue an organized course of a general type in wood-work and metal-work, science, mathematics, and drawing, though this is not designed to meet the needs of any special group of industries. The industrial course for girls is made up of art applied to design in line and colour in connexion with needlecraft, science bearing upon domestic subjects, a wider course of housecraft made as practical as possible, such, for example, as the preparation of school meals. French

has been recently introduced; it is dropped when pupils join the industrial side and by others without natural gifts still earlier. The time given to the applied side of the work for both sexes is a quarter of the whole week.

For purposes of comparison we give below the detailed schemes and syllabuses of (1) a central school in a commercial community, (2) a mixed central school in an industrial area, and (3) a central school in a seaside town where no definite industries exist.¹

London Bow Central Mixed School

This is a mixed selective central school following a curriculum planned to cover five years. Children enter between $10\frac{1}{2}$ and $11\frac{1}{4}$ years and in sufficient numbers to form two parallel classes each year.

The headmaster lays special stress upon the development of a close association between the parents and the future employers. The parent is fully informed as to the work the child is doing, and it is often a surprise to him to find that the school is thinking not merely of the child's lessons, but of his well-being as a whole and of his future. Relations with employers vary. If the avenues to occupations in a district are few, contact is easy and the curriculum can be determined by conference and exchange of ideas. But where occupations are numerous and of variable character it is much more difficult to determine bias and to test the results of training. Information must be obtained largely from former pupils as to the success of the instruction. Adaptations follow after trial has shown success or failure. Often the necessary changes must be made in face of accepted ideas as to what constitutes success in school training. The teacher too must be wary lest he takes too strongly the outlook of the employer: the views of the employers are rapidly changing in harmony with the rising intelligence of the young employees.

The headmaster also believes that a measure of freedom is necessary for children after the school leaving age is reached. Social activities should be encouraged partly to compensate for the loss of leisure which leaving school incurs. In his view these older children may be left with lessened oversight and guidance and they should be trained to do as much as possible for themselves. To maintain their interest it is all-important that the work should not become stereotyped. Pupils like the touch of reality. The school should incorporate in its curriculum matters which link education with many occupations, and it should also cultivate interests, however remote from the traditional curriculum, since it is all-important to secure attention upon matters which concern both working hours and periods of leisure.

This does not mean an easy time for the teacher: a teacher must be friendly yet strenuous in action if the pupil is to be induced to stay at school. The latter needs to be convinced that it is worth while. The organization of the school demands also much vigilance on the part

¹ We publish these by kind permission of the headmasters, Messrs. J. A. White, W. J. Lofthouse, and C. C. Hall.

of the headmaster. Staff conferences will help if by frequent contact and discussion the headmaster and each member of his staff understand one another. But there is no royal road for the person in control: the practice of one school gives little guidance for another. Frequent changes of outlook must be expected in order to meet changing circumstances.

Analysis of the Time-table (in hours)

	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.	4th Yr.	5th Yr.
Mathematics, Boys ..	4.40	4.40	4.40	4.40	4.0
„ „ Girls ..	3.20	3.20	3.20	3.40	3.0
Science	1.40	1.40	1.40	—	—
English	4.0	4.0	4.10	4.20	4.20
Geography	1.20	1.40	1.40	1.30	2.0
History	1.40	1.20	1.10	1.30	1.40
French	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Art	1.40	1.20	1.40	—	—
Music	1.0	1.0	1.0	—	—
Physical Training ..	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Manual Training, Domestic Subjects	2.30	2.20	2.20	—	—
Needlework	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.0	1.0
Recreation	1.40	1.40	1.40	1.40	1.40
Religious Instruction ..	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30
Commercial Subjects ..	—	—	—	6.20	6.20

Boys take mathematics when girls take needlework. A few pupils take subjects bearing directly upon ascertained future occupations at times when others take commercial subjects.

It will be seen that the definite bias begins during the third year and to meet this a new time-table is drawn up every six months. This is not an easy matter, yet it is one which regularizes procedure, since it means that every boy starts the new type of work about fourteen years. Moreover, purposefulness in the instruction makes a special appeal and there is no particular demand for examination certificates. Work directly concerned with the bias takes up $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the fourth year and 7 hours in the fifth. But other subjects, especially English and geography, take on a commercial aspect. Geography and history are also used to secure facility in well-written English. Much elasticity in the apportionment of time within a subject, e.g. mathematics, is allowed, though in the fifth year adherence to prescribed syllabuses and special technical courses is expected because of examination needs, and the ordinary requirements of office and of laboratory work.

Scheme of Work

English

- (a) Grammar taken throughout the school and intended to secure:
- (1) Sufficient technical vocabulary to enable a child to understand when sentence formation is being criticized in a reasoned way.
 - (2) A clear comprehension of the meanings of technical terms to enable the children to follow references by the language teachers.
 - (3) A sufficient knowledge of the meanings of words and sentences and of the simple technique of poetry to enable a child to realize and to discuss intelligently quantity and quality in literary expression.

(b) Study of verse, using the *Golden Treasury*, poems selected mainly from the works of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Longfellow, Tennyson, and Shakespeare for the lower forms with additions by other well-known poets in the higher forms.

(c) A study of prose, writings by Dickens and Stevenson in the lower, with a wider selection including essays for the older pupils.

(d) Individual reading is encouraged. The list of books recommended as suitable for different periods is given in full.

LIST OF READING BOOKS IN STOCK

SUITABLE FOR 1ST YEAR

With Clive in India.	Wulf the Saxon.
Preston Fight.	The Coral Island.
True Blue.	Tom Brown's Schooldays.
World of Ice.	Adventures of Tom Sawyer.
Adventures of Huckleberry Finn.	Erling the Bold.
The Little Duke.	Tanglewood Tales.
In the New Forest.	Lion Heart.
With the Black Prince.	Claud the Archer.
Tales of Our Forefathers.	

SUITABLE FOR 2ND YEAR

Micah Clarke.	Treasure Island.
Both Sides of the Border.	Under Drake's Flag.
Westward Ho!	In Search of the Southland.
With Marlboro' to Malplaquet.	Ivanhoe.
The Lighthouse.	John Halifax, Gentleman.
Uncle Tom's Cabin.	Children of the New Forest.
The Four Feathers.	

SUITABLE FOR 3RD YEAR

Christmas Carol.	Pickwick Papers.
Tale of the Great Meeting.	Life of Nelson.
Kidnapped.	The White Company.
Through Europe with Napoleon.	Christmas Stories, Dickens.
Astonishing History of Troy Town.	Cranford.
Last of the Mohicans.	Stories of Exploration and Discovery.

SUITABLE FOR 4TH YEAR

History of London.	Citizen Reader.
Unto this Last.	Ruskin Reader.
Meadow I Know.	Pond I Know.
Lorna Doone.	Great Expectations.
Deeds that won the Empire.	Wolfe.
First Crossing of Greenland.	Life of Gordon.
Atalanta's Race.	Nicholas Nickleby.
David Copperfield.	A Book of English Essays, 1600.
A Book of English Essays, 1900.	Peacock's Selected Essays.
Pilgrim's Progress.	English Letters, 15th to 19th Centuries.
English Short Stories, 19th Century.	Spectator in London.

SUITABLE FOR 5TH YEAR

Set books for various examinations.	Essays, Bacon.
Sketches and Essays.	Heroes and Hero Worship.
Shakespeare's Plays (Globe Edition).	Prose of To-day (English Association).

History

The teaching of this subject is based on the idea that after eleven years of age the children's interest in the community begins to grow. The main difficulty is to avoid ready-made generalizations admitting of many interpretations. On the contrary, concreteness makes history real and reality is the basis of interest. It helps to train children to appreciate and understand the conditions of life, the bases of human effort and outlook, and standards of action or morality very different from our own. Once these are grasped, the children can better understand various aspects of world history.

The teacher's problem is to find ways of making his teaching concrete, through, for example, contemporary pictorial illustrations, facsimiles of important extracts, objects of historical interest, portraits of famous people.

For all forms such facts and illustrations should be selected as will bring out: (1) the kind of life and people; (2) the influence of one event upon another, especially events of the previous period; (3) the arrangement of the government of the country to meet the necessities of the times; (4) the effect upon the life and locality of the children of to-day.

The course adopted is:

First Year: English history to 1485.

Second Year: British history 1485-1715.

Third Year: 1715 to present date. British history and that of English-speaking countries, with special attention given to:

1. Colonies and the wars in which acquired (England and France).
2. Agriculture and Colonial development.
3. The development of manufacturing centres and the application of steam power machines—the town labourer.
4. The increase in population.
5. Development in methods of transport.
6. Development of scientific knowledge.

7. Separation of nonconformists and catholic emancipation.
8. Education factors.
9. Changes in class of those governing the country.

Fourth Year: Ancient civilizations and what we owe to them.

Fifth Year: Spread of Christianity over Europe.

Rise and spread of Mohammedanism.
 Arabian civilization and its effect on Europe.
 The Crusades.
 The beginnings of the European nations.
 The growth of cities.
 Trade and commerce.
 Importance of the Italian City States.
 The Hanseatic League.
 The cities of Flanders.
 Geographical discoveries.
 The Renaissance.
 Education and the rise of universities.
 The Reformation and the wars of religion.
 Gustavus Adolphus.
 Louis XIV, the rise of Prussia.
 Colonies and commerce in seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.
 Revolt of American colonies.
 Industrial revolution.
 The story of the Near East.
 The story of the Far East.
 The German Empire.
 The desire for the League of Nations.

Geography

(Syllabus to be followed as far as books and other apparatus permit.)

First Year

- (a) Geography of British Isles for first three months of the year.
- (b) The world:
 1. The great physical features.
 2. The climatic zones.
 3. The great centres of population.
- (c) Lessons on:
 1. Elementary map reading.
 2. The globe—latitude and longitude.
 3. Plains, plateaux, and mountains.
 4. Rivers.
 5. Conditions affecting climate.
 6. Climate—winds, rainfall. Air-pressure, weather charts.
 7. Great climatic zones in broad outline.

8. Vegetation characteristic of these zones, with conditions affecting growth of such vegetation.
 9. Great centres of population with conditions determining these.
 10. River basins of China and India.
 11. Great industrial regions of more civilized lands.
- (7-11 in correlation with science lessons.)

Second Year

1. More detailed study of climatic zones of the world, illustrated by study of lands in Southern Hemisphere, South America, Africa, New Zealand and islands in Pacific; study of chief physical features, climate, vegetation, industries, trade, and population.

2. Revision of geography of British Isles for last three months of the year.

Third Year

1. More detailed study of climatic zones of the world illustrated by continents in Northern Hemispheres, Europe, Asia, North America; study of chief physical features, climate, vegetation, industries, trade, population.

2. Revision of geography of British Isles for last three months of the year.

Fourth Year

Detailed study of British Isles and British Dominions with special attention to climate, products, trade, and communications.

Fifth Year

Syllabus of chambers of commerce and other examinations.

Mathematics

Algebra.—From the first, children should be trained to look at the algebraical shape of the expression, e.g. is it homogeneous? In the later stages it is very beneficial if they can see the shape of the result aimed at. For instance, the square root of a homogeneous expression at the fourth degree must be homogeneous and at the second degree. This principle is of very wide application and should not be lost sight of.

In the later years the idea that algebra is “symbolized” should be enlarged to make clear the general nature of algebra and its consequent superiority to arithmetic. This is admirably shown in fractional and negative indices and in the “impossible” solution to problems depending on quadration. It is taken throughout the school. Easy quadratics are begun in the Third Year while the work of the Fourth and Fifth Years is as follows.

Fourth Year.—All factors; involution and evolution (no general method for square root); harder quadratics in one variable (completion of the square by formula); easy problems leading to quadratics.

Fifth Year.—Simultaneous quadratics, two variables; indices; fractions; progressions.

Arithmetic.—During the first three years a complete course is taken. In the fourth and fifth the syllabuses run as follows:

Fourth Year.—Use of logarithms; metric system and conversion of system; foreign money, weights and measures, and conversion; construction of conversion tables; contraction methods and approximation; commercial arithmetic with foreign exchange, stocks and shares, and commission. &c.; graph of statistics and commissions, &c.; graph of statistics and estimates therefrom; long and cross decimal tots—simple addition containing several lines to be added—balancing columns—prices.

Fifth Year.—Commercial arithmetic in general in preparation for London Chamber of Commerce; long and cross tots—simple, compound decimals; mental arithmetic; decimalization, approximation—metric system; exchange values; Post Office Savings Bank Interest—percentages—comparison of stocks and shares—discount—statistics and general practice in order to obtain rapidity and accuracy; sustained working.

Geometry.—Geometry is taken throughout the school.

First Year: General drawing.

Second Year: Elementary solid geometry and scale drawing.

Third Year: Lines, but formal proofs need not be insisted upon for all the propositions. More attention can then be given to problems both practical and theoretical.

Fourth Year.—The circle; chords, secants, and tangents; angles in same (or equal) segments; angles at circumference and centre; quadrilateral in a circle; concyclic points; contact of circles; common tangents to two circles; construction of circles to fulfil certain conditions.

Fifth Year.—Trigonometry is taken this year.

No proofs of formulæ to be insisted on; trigonometrical ratios of an angle; trigonometrical ratios of an angle 0° , 30° , 45° , 60° , 98° ; the convention of signs; ratios of angles from 0° to 360° ; ratios of $A \equiv B$; ratios of $2A$; easy transformations; easy trigonometrical equations (one solution); solution of triangles. Or alternatively the geometry for the senior local examinations (in individual cases).

Science

Science is taken up to the end of the third year; general elementary science, mostly chemistry and physics and botany. Here the instruction is chiefly through talks and demonstrations.

Drawing

Drawing includes object drawing, lettering, design and colouring. In the lower forms the children are introduced to perspective, and to shading in the third year. In the fourth year and fifth year the extended

course for the advanced scholars will provide for the precise use of the instruments of the architect or draughtsman and the insistence on great precision as regards measurements; the making of at least six carefully drawn sheets of geometrical problems, comprising many curves known to architects; the measuring of school cupboards and the working to scale in the drawing of the same and outlining the furnished drawing in ink with ruling pens; the measurements of the plan of a room and working to scale to make a drawing of the same plan; the sketching of a portion of a house from the actual object and drawing the same in a careful manner, suitable for presentation to a client; the study of mouldings and their use as enrichments, and the drawing of these to a large scale; the plans of pillars and their enrichment; how to arrive at known examples, such as the Doric and the Corinthian flutings; the careful copying of capitals and other decorations as a means of storing the mind with good examples; the sketching of part of a room, of lavatory, &c., showing existing fittings, and the proposed alteration in placing a cupboard, door, &c., in its stead.

All this will be done for these classes as far as the equipment of the art room and the ability and temperament of the scholars will permit, the great aim and object being to make a young draughtsman of the scholar, ready to approach any reasonable job in a drawing office.

Needlework

The syllabus endeavours to give girls a practical knowledge of plain sewing, and sufficient of fancy needlework to ensure their being able to:

- (a) Cut from patterns any simple garment for outer, under, or night wear.
- (b) Adapt a pattern to the needs of the wearer.
- (c) Make any ordinary garment for everyday wear (except strictly tailored clothes), utilizing stitches taught.
- (d) Use a sewing machine.
- (e) Use such ornamental touches as shall enhance the beauty of plain sewing.
- (f) Repair and remodel frocks that are outgrown by their wearers.
- (g) Repair stockings and underwear.
- (h) Beautify their homes by useful articles requiring a knowledge of simple embroidery and the fancy stitches.
- (i) Compute quantities of material required for and costs of all garments and articles worked upon.

Artistic work and original design are encouraged at all stages.

First Year

Plain stitches: Hemming, running, oversewing.

Fancy stitches: Tack and cross stitches, in various combinations using single colours or a range. Simple hem stitching, blanket stitch, lazy daisy stitch, chain stitch.

Processes: Run and fell seams, plain hems, French seam, cross-way binds, flat facing.

Suggested garments: (a) A needlework bag or apron with pocket, for use throughout the school course, such bag to be fitted with needle case and thimble. (b) Magyar blouse or small frock, gymnasium knickers, simple pinafore, plain princess petticoat.

Fancy work: Very simple runners, table centres, or tray cloths.

Mending: To darn a thin place—stocking, web, linen or damask.

Knitting: Child's sock, vest.

Second Year

Plain stitches: Hemming, running, button-holing.

Fancy stitches: More elaborate varieties of tack and cross-stitch, back stitching, hem stitching, fag stitch, stem and satin stitches, fancy blanket stitches, elaboration of the lazy daisy stitch.

Processes: French, run and fell, and mantua-maker's seams, bindings, facings, plaquet openings, plain sleeve setting.

Suggested garments: (a) Plain gymnasium blouse with set-in sleeve (help with fixing-in of sleeve). (b) Girl's pyjamas with jumper top (magyar or set-in sleeve). (c) Nightdress (with tucks or slight gathering introduced). (d) Very simple frocks. (e) Petticoats with side gatherings.

Fancy work: Runners, cushion covers, centres using coarser linens, art canvasses, &c., button-holing, very simple appliqué, cross-stitch.

Mending: To darn a hole.

Knitting: Man's sock, simple jumpers for winter wear (with gymnasium tunic).

Third Year

Plain stitches: As in second year, finer work expected.

Fancy stitches: Elaboration of stitches taught—originality in design to be encouraged, darning as a means of filling spaces, eyelet work, frail stitch, Italian stitch, French knots.

Processes: As in second year, exacting finer and more accurate work in fixing blouse and frock collars, box-pleat.

Suggested garments: (a) Men's and boys' pyjamas. (b) Girls' pyjamas with coat tops (set-in sleeve). (c) More elaborate underwear and girls' frocks. (d) Small tunic suits.

Fancy work: Five o'clock cloths, duchess sets, runners and centres in finer linen, introducing eyelet work, button-holing, simple appliqué designs, more elaborate cross-stitch and satin stitch work, outlining and filling in spaces in various ways.

Mending: Patching on plain or patterned material.

Knitting: Boys' socks with turn-over tops, children's simple frocks, babies' "woollies".

Correlation with art work should be a feature of the year.

Fourth Year

Plain and fancy stitches: As in the third year—finer materials used, also heavier dress materials. Richelieu work.

Processes: As in the third year, but with less help.

Suggested garments: (a) Large and more elaborate girls' frocks. (b) Babies' garments. (c) Gymnasium tunics in casement cloth and serge.

Fancy work: Continued on the third year lines, more insistence on originality in design and colour scheme, simple thread work.

Mending and renovating: Ways of lengthening frocks, altering slips, &c.

Knitting: More elaborate children's frocks, girls' jumpers or cardigans, infants' outfits.

Fifth Year

More freedom given in every direction, provided girls can make a good attempt at any part of the four-years course. Dressing jackets, jumpers, &c., by pattern, guidance as to colouring and method of trimming. Every girl should be able to manage a sewing machine, and to know how to make use of a dress stand.

Special Course

Initiation into dressmaking—how to measure for a garment, to use and adapt patterns, to carry out original dress designs. Methods of seaming, hemming, &c., compared with use in finer work.

French*Third Year*

Books: Ripman, *Further Steps*, completed.

Pronunciation: Occasional drill and use of phonetics as a standard for correction of mistakes in pronunciation.

Reading, vocabulary, pronunciation: Based on the subject-matter of the book. Reading of some simple stories and plays.

Conversation, composition: Based on the subject-matter of the book and on the following list of general subjects: Monnaies, achats chez le boulanger et l'épicier, toilette, maladies légères, en ville, à la campagne, saisons, en voyage, chemin de fer, bateau, restaurant, jardin.

Verbs: As in previous years; conditional, present subjunctive, imperfect subjunctive.

Some compositions in letter forms are given, poems and songs are taken, and a certain amount of prose and verse is learned by heart. The syllabus also includes the occasional use of French newspapers, correspondence with French-speaking children, lectrices, and where possible a visit to France.

Commercial Subjects

Book-keeping.—The syllabus of book-keeping and business training follows the general lines required for the Junior Examination of the London Chamber of Commerce.

Shorthand.—The scheme for shorthand and business training can be best understood by the following detailed syllabus for the last year:

Writing in position; the L and B rule for consonants and vowels; the thickening vowels; various cases of thickening under special circumstances; consonants (compound) traced above the line of writing; L and R rule before combinations of NK and NG; revision of the whole of Grade III; use of prefixes in the L and B rule; lists of frequent words contracted under Grade III rules; words placed below the line of writing; phrasing of common word-phrases which are constantly occurring; exercises in business letters from dictation; dictation of short speeches of moderate difficulty and of general reading matter of an ordinary character. Plenty of specimen writing on blackboard and copying should be done to get the pupils to produce a good and fluent style in the best third-grade outlines. A speed of eighty words per minute in Grade III style should be aimed at.

Commerce.—Commerce schemes for the last two years are as follows:

First Year

Home trade.

The retail trade.

Distribution of foodstuffs.

Large-scale retail undertakings.

Warehouse organizations.

Co-operation.

Profits and prices—arithmetical work.

Works organization.

Salesmanship.

Office routine.

Commercial correspondence.

Quotations and orders.

Invoices—goods outwards.

Accounts and remittances.

Credit facilities—debt collecting.

Filing and indexing.

Second Year

Finance.

The Banking Account.

Bills of Exchange and Promissory notes.

Methods of payment compared.

Currency.

Legal matters.

Contracts.

Sale of goods.

Transport and insurance.

Carriage and carriers.

Railway and canal traffic.

Sea transport.

Insurances.

Books and customs.

Foreign trade.

Foreign bills and credits.

Exporting.

Importing.

Produce market and exchanges.

Enterprise and finance.

Partnerships, companies, &c.

Stock exchange.

The City and credit and national finance.

Money market.

Sale Central School

This is a mixed selective central school of about 360 children, in the neighbourhood of Manchester, situated in an area residential in character.

It admits about forty boys and forty girls annually by examination, at eleven years of age. Many of these have failed to get into secondary schools, and the proportion of average compared with super-average children is high. Sessions are three hours in length. The course lasts four years with a proportion remaining a fifth year.

Children remain for one year in a class: promotion depends on examination, which can be passed only by hard work. Many children who seem to be lazy, or develop slowly, find themselves in the last two years. Boys and girls work separately for nearly the whole course. Close contact with parents is maintained and reports to them are very frank: employers are not given the same detailed information concerning development through the years of school life.

Employers are demanding greater ability accompanied by all-round smartness, hence, for the better posts, children must remain at school until sixteen. Employers do not demand specialized training if the general training is sound. Anything approaching vocational training is not favoured by the school, since it encourages judgments from the shop standard of finish. Training for leisure is more important than training for specialized jobs. Still, contact with commercial work can be made by skilled teachers of English and mathematics, who know the ways of offices and business houses. In coming to this conclusion the headmaster has relied on the evidence of former and successful pupils. Interchange between commercial and industrial occupations frequently takes place in a region like Manchester, emphasizing the need for a practical bias together with an introduction to commercial work. Some pupils prefer not to specialize at all. The opportunities for further education in Manchester are numerous, and if there are higher general attainments to be made use of, opportunities on leaving school are available.

Still the wishes of parents must be respected, and this means differentiation towards the top for certain children. The school has a general course as well as a double bias. For the commercial bias English, history, geography, arithmetic, and book-keeping (including business training) are compulsory. In shorthand, 100 words a minute with commercial letters is expected in the fourth year: a complete training in typewriting, including display work and tabulating, is provided. Commerce, well taught, is quite suitable for the older children.

For the industrial course extra work is taken in mathematics, geometrical and machine drawing, and in heat engines. These replace history and geography. Later in life many enter the Manchester School of Technology as full-time or part-time students and take university degrees. Unless allowed to sit for matriculation at school, however, they are sorely hindered. The Northern Matriculation, in this regard, suits central schools because other subjects may replace a language.

For commercial training, general preparation for School Certificate, followed by intensive commercial training, suits the requirements of the business world better than two years of biased commercial training.

The greater proportion are content with a general course including practical work, but without a bias. All take French for three years: it complicates staff arrangements if any drop out, and there is something gained even by the slowest from an introduction to another language. Homework is demanded from all. The fifth year is devoted to special biased work with some: others go over the fourth year work again but more thoroughly: others come back because they cannot secure employment.

The school has a strong social side shown by concerts and displays, by successfully run school societies, by regular parties for visits to places of geographical and historical interest and to a summer camp, by Savings Associations, and by a strong games side.

Analysis of Time-table (in hours)

	4A.	4C.	4I.	3B.	3G.	2B.	2G.	1B.	1G.
Religious Instruction ..	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30
English	4.30	3.20	4.30	4.10	3.40	4.45	4.0	4.10	4.15
History	3.40	2.45	—	2.15	2.15	2.30	1.45	2.15	2.15
Geography	3.45	2.25	—	2.25	2.25	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30
French	4.25	—	—	4.10	3.45	3.25	3.45	3.30	3.5
Mathematics	4.5	2.25	6.10	4.0	3.40	4.10	3.45	4.20	4.15
Science	4.0	—	6.15	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.40	1.40
Art	—	—	1.0	1.50	1.50	1.30	1.50	1.40	1.35
Handicraft	—	—	2.30	2.0	—	2.0	—	2.30	—
Geom. and Mach. Drawing	—	—	4.0	1.45	—	1.45	—	1.50	—
Needlework	—	—	—	—	2.30	—	2.30	—	2.20
Housecraft	—	—	—	—	2.30	—	2.30	—	2.30
Shorthand	—	5.10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Book-keeping	—	3.35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Typewriting	—	2.15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Commerce	—	2.30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Physical Training ..	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Registration and Recreation	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30

In the fourth year, Form 4A takes a general course, Form 4C a commercial, and Form 4I an industrial course.

Scheme of Work

In English much attention is given to letter writing, composition, class reading, and to individual study of selected books. Reading aloud is insisted upon. In the fourth year the literature chosen is determined by matriculation requirements.

In history emphasis is laid upon local history and concrete aids, the course followed being:

First Year: General World History.

Second Year: British History from Early Times.

Third Year: British History from 1603 with its relations to General European History.

Fourth Year: Syllabus of Examination of Royal Society of Arts. Outline of British History, 1688-1914.

In geography much attention is given to physical geography.

Second Year: The Americas.

Third Year: Europe and Asia.

Fourth Year: British Isles and the World in less detail, giving special attention to the more important parts of the British Dominions and Europe.

The scheme for mathematics and science (chemistry and physics) can be summed up by saying that children are expected to have covered the matriculation syllabus before the end of the fourth year.

At the end of the four-year course, pupils should be able to converse fairly freely using the French idiom rather than English literally translated: be able to act as interpreters of everyday language, and be able to write simple essays and letters. The direct method is followed, and all rules of grammar are taught conversationally. The fourth year will cover all syntax and much reading is encouraged.

Weymouth Boys' Central School

Weymouth is a seaside town without definite industries. The curriculum in this school is planned for a three years' course with an extension if necessary for a fourth year. About eighty boys of eleven years of age enter annually and are arranged in parallel classes. A grammar school takes the best children by means of scholarships: the standard for admission here does not exclude children of average capacity. The headmaster works for the "creation of a society of youth in which each member shall have the opportunity to grow up in a way that may reveal and develop what is best in him. He seeks to make each pupil a potential serviceable citizen capable of finding undivided satisfaction in his adaptability to a good standard of life." The life of the school is inspired by this ideal.

The classification of the pupils on entry is based principally on examination results. It is tentative: the main idea is to discover capacity for progress. By practical methods the ability to advance rapidly is revealed and subsequent internal transfer is possible. The house system is adopted and much reliance is placed upon it. In addition there is a prefect system for general control.

The syllabuses for A and B classes differ but little. The difference is best seen in the mode and range of treatment of English and mathematics. Each teacher has charge of a form and gives instruction in English and general mathematics to its members. This secures sufficient control to develop that personal intimacy and knowledge which are essential to a sense of responsibility: it also assists greatly in the proper correlation of subjects. Each teacher also gives specialist instruction to two forms of one year. This demands a study of the pupil rather than the class, and

it brings the teacher into contact with the child of super-average capacity as well as with the pupil of average ability, while it does not burden him with an excess of preparation and marking of exercises. This system is not, however, followed rigidly. The headmaster as geography specialist teaches all forms.

No set leaving examination is taken, but individual boys enter for Army, Navy, and Air Force examinations and for those held by municipal and railway authorities. The only preparation for these examinations is through the homework: the syllabus is in no wise affected.

Considerable attention is given to hobbies and leisure time interests, e.g. a scout troop with its many activities exists, an aeroplane club, really an informal science handicraft class, a violin class, and a school choir. Dramatic performances are undertaken from time to time. Athletics, in which every boy must share, include cricket, football, tennis, running, boxing, and swimming. Boxing in particular is found to be an excellent aid to discipline. Much attention is given to the systematic study of the environment to illustrate different human interests, e.g. in the hall is a classified gallery of international art pictures framed and arranged to form a frieze. Such attention to surroundings aids by indirect influence in producing a school atmosphere and tone suited to the outlook of the older boys.

There is one woman on the staff who teaches the lowest form, and, as a specialist, the top form. Her presence certainly widens the training of the boys by softening the tone and inducing respect for the other sex.

Scheme of Work.—The time allotted to various subjects is shown by the following analysis. Periods are seventy minutes long.

Periods.					Periods.				
English 4. ¹	Geography 2.
Arithmetic 2. ¹	Woodwork 2.
Geometry 1.	Art 1.
Algebra and Mensuration 2.	Music 1.
History 2.	Physical Training 1.
Science 1.	Optional 1. ¹

The ideas underlying the English and mathematical schemes will be easily grasped from the details of work set down for the third year.

HISTORY

First Year: A course on ancient civilization is followed.

Second Year: English history A.D. 500 to 1688.

Third Year: History of Europe and the British Empire, A.D. 1688 to to-day. Chief themes: Defeat of Louis XIV's ambitions; England and Wales in America and India; American independence; French revolution and Napoleonic wars; Captain Cook and Australia; Changes in industry and transport; Indian Mutiny and Indian problems; Rise of Germany and France—German rivalry; the Great War and the League of Nations; local history.

¹ These are taught by the form-master the rest by specialists.

Fourth Year

1. Social and industrial history, 1750 to to-day. The agricultural revolution. Change from domestic to factory system of industry. Introduction of machinery and improved transport. Trade Unions. Reforms—franchise, education, factory. Free Trade: science and inventions: world trade, the basis of our economic life.

2. Imperial development. How we acquired our Dominions: their growth to self-government: their relations to us.

3. The Great War and the League of Nations. Simple analysis of causes: Franco-German rivalry. Berlin to Bagdad railway; scramble for colonies. Factors in the war—sea power, man power, food supplies, submarines and aeroplanes. Principles of the Peace of Versailles; self-determination.

GEOGRAPHY

In geography much attention is given to the handling of apparatus for measuring temperature, pressure, and rainfall, as well as to the construction and interpretation of charts, star maps, ordnance survey and other maps. Apart from this the course follows generally the schemes adopted in the best-known textbooks. But one author is not invariably followed, since variety of treatment is regarded as essential.

First Year: Americas, Africa, and Australia are studied.

Second Year: Asia.

Third Year: British Isles.

Fourth Year: World and its work.

SCIENCE

No formal course is adopted. Problems are selected which will give pupils an opportunity of discovering and investigating in a simple way some of the common principles of mechanics, physics, and chemistry.

In the first year these are selected chiefly from magnetism, light and heat, with more exact training in weighing and measuring; in the second year some are added from mechanics and chemistry; while the work of the third year covers the same ground but in more systematic fashion.

ARITHMETIC

Direct and inverse proportion. Graphical representations of inverse proportion by means of hyperbola. Compound proportion. Logarithms: (a) construction of log graphs and finding logs of numbers and antilogs of logs; (b) positive characteristics and negative characteristics. Use of tables and calculations by means of logs.

Compound interest (a) by log method, (b) tables, (c) logs. Principal, rate, years, and amount by means of formulæ and logs.

Insurance: (a) fire and "all in" insurance, (b) life insurance, whole life and endowment policies, (c) State insurance investments, stocks and shares.

ALGEBRA

Indices negative and fractional. Straight line graph. Simultaneous equations by graph and by rule. Resolution into factors, e.g. $x^2 + 7x + 10$, $x^2 - yx + 10$, $x^2 - 3x - 10$, $12x^2 - 23x + 10$. Graphical solution of quadratics. Quadratic equations—solution by factors, by completion of square. Fractions. Addition and subtraction (H.C.F. and L.C.M.). Reduction to lowest terms, simplification of fractions. Cyclic order.

GEOMETRY

Ideas of symmetry. The circle, chords, centre: arcs, angles, proportion, angle properties. Calculation by drawing leading to trigonometrical ratios. Tangents. Circles touching externally and internally, circles and straight line, two given circles. Common tangents, rectangular properties. Solid geometry. Plan and elevation of wooden models. (a) Triangular prisms, hexagonal, tetrahedron, square and hexagonal pyramid. (b) Sectional plans and elevations. (c) Models made at manual centre: plans and elevations of block letters and of castings.

MENSURATION

Areas of similar figures. Extension of Pythagoras' theorem. Cylinder, area of surface, volume, hollow cylinder. Area of surface, and volume of pyramid, cone, sphere. Trigonometrical ratios—tables by drawing and calculation. Sine, cos, and tangent. Construction of angles, given the trigonometrical ratios. Sphere: calculation of distances between points on surface of globe. Heights and distances, using trigonometrical tables. Similar solids, areas, volumes, weights.

Future Possibilities

It should be borne in mind that many parents have been influenced in keeping their children at the central school by the fact that the normal leaving age has been fourteen years. When the leaving age is raised to fifteen years it will not be unnatural for the selective central schools to aim at sixteen years as the normal age for leaving. If the age be thus extended, pupils on leaving will be equipped for examination work and the problem of the choice of examinations at once arises. This is not the place to discuss the desirability or the nature of the examinations which should or should not be held in these central schools. In some cases, no doubt, examinations will be subordinate and taken incidentally. In others they will form a necessary, though co-ordinated, part of the school routine. But society demands some security and the schools have to supply this, particularly as the present secondary schools and the universities "point to Heaven and show the way". Indeed, the success so often gained by selective central schools is obviously tempting both to parents and to teachers, for employers also regard the leaving school certificate with favour. It is, of course, clear that the work is not beyond the schools, though preparation for these examinations would affect their

general aim. The solution, however, lies in the radical reform of the nature and scope of the leaving certificate, in the possibility of frequent transfer of pupils to the secondary schools, and in the recognition of the central school as an institution of full secondary rank.¹

Compared with the secondary schools, the selective central schools are far less favoured in their provision of facilities for games and outdoor work.² A few have their own playing fields; one, for example, has $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres, of which 2 are attached to the school. Many excel in physical training, organize successful school clubs and societies, send and conduct school journeys to the hills, seaside, or abroad. In many and various ways a valuable social spirit is developed. On the other hand there is evidence that much of the old spirit still prevails. Hard, unrelenting, often uninteresting work is the rule, relieved somewhat by recreation, but with the latter given time quite out of proportion to that allotted for study. Much has been done, but it is perhaps on this side, in the development of social and communal interests, that the central schools need most encouragement. Something can be done to help this by the close association of all institutions for secondary education and by co-operation in games and outdoor activities. But this must be recognized as temporary. These schools must be provided with ample means for recreation. Playing fields and their necessary equipment are essential to their work if they are to take their due place in our system of secondary education.

Rural Central Schools

The proper organization of the rural central school has yet to be thought out, and much experiment is necessary before this very important section of our educational work can be adequately treated. In some areas the rural central schools may be able to organize courses similar to those outlined for the selective central schools. The committee on the training of rural teachers, which reported in 1929, took, however, a more modest view.³ Little more, in their opinion, should be expected than that biology should be encouraged, various practical subjects introduced, and a bias given to the ordinary subjects. The committee⁴ which dealt in the same year with the practical education of women for rural life were not in favour, for example, of commencing continuous instruction in such practical work as dairying and the keeping of the smaller live stock. They recommended, however, (1) some training of girls from 14 to 16 years in secretarial work, and the keeping of accounts, (2) practical work in a group of subjects including care of live stock, dairying, poultry-keeping, horticulture, bee-keeping, laundry work, housewifery, cookery (with special

¹ Cf. *The School Leaving Certificate Examination: A New Proposal*, Dr. Wm. Edwards.

² Even the secondary schools are not all well equipped. See, for example, the Report of a Survey of Physical Training in Secondary Schools (*Education in Wales*, 1929, p. 7, Cmd. 3560).

³ See *Report of the Departmental Committee on the Training of Rural Teachers*, 1929, pp. 58-62.

⁴ See *The Practical Education of Women for Rural Life*, Ministry of Agriculture, 1928.

reference to fruit preservation, bacon curing, and a general utilization of home-produced food). The committee also suggested the extension of instruction in gardening, and in homecraft for girls, including under housecraft, basketry, raffia work, and rug-making. Such courses may be profitable if the pupils give at least half their school time to practical work.

Some authorities favour the attachment of a school to a farm, where children may get into close touch with a succession of agricultural operations. Under such conditions the work would be closely akin to that of the junior technical school and should not be attempted before the age of thirteen at the earliest. The boys are graded, and the practical work is looked upon as of first importance. They are divided into those who may take to farm life and those who at best are likely to be interested in horticulture. The farm boys begin generally with work on the field and pass on to work with cattle. Garden boys begin with simple operations and gradually go on to more responsible and skilled work, including fruit culture and cultivation under glass. In addition, and largely arising out of it, the boys have class instruction both in practical subjects and the principles of farm and garden management. On the farm side the boys are taught general field work, milking and attendance on cattle, pigs, and poultry. Work with horses and such skilled processes as stacking, thatching, and hedging are usually beyond the strength of boys of school age, though much can be done by intelligent observation and a study of the fundamental sciences. In the course indoors for boys who, weather permitting, give a portion of every working day to practical work, such points as the following fall well within their range:

1. The different varieties of ploughs, setting out of land for ploughing, and the methods of setting ridges and furrows.
2. Stacking: different shapes adopted: calculations which determine area of stack: hay and corn ricks.
3. Thatching: materials used: time for thatching: preparation of rick: laying, cording, and pegging the thatch.
4. Hedging plants used: planting and subsequent treatment: shaping and laying hedges.
5. Care and management of live stock: different foods and their values: methods of feeding: handling of young and mature animals: milking: cleanliness and ventilation of sheds: indoor care of stock.
6. Care and use of farm machinery and the underlying science, especially of steam, internal combustion, petrol engines.

Of the many attempts to found selective central schools, those in rural districts have been least successful. Many senior schools have succeeded in particular directions and in the treatment of particular aspects of rural education, but complete schemes with a rural bias are rare. On the other hand, teachers in rural schools often introduce topics suggested by the

immediate environment. In a Cheshire school, for example,* farmers were invited to send samples of various seed—wheat, peas, and beans, clover and grasses, and the like, which they proposed to sow during the approaching spring. On these the school reported after examination as to their germinative energy, distinguishing between old and new seed, giving the percentage of germinating seed and the quantity and nature of the weeds included in the sample. The pupils learned much as to the appearance of seeds, their periods of germination, and the various characteristics of the young plants and likely weeds. The farmer gained much by the knowledge learnt as to the quality of the sample, so much so that if it was extremely poor he still had time to sow afresh. The work was taken along with botany, gardening, and handwork. But the school could not be said to have a bias; indeed, most of its products, on leaving school, entered Manchester offices.

The following scheme of an experimental school has not the advantage of having been tried in a number of schools, as have the others we put forward. Still in view of the difficulty experienced in developing a rural bias we have thought it well to set out the subjects and their syllabuses in some detail.

Analysis of Time-table (in hours)

	1st Year	2nd Year.	3rd Year	4th Year
(1) Scripture and the Humanities including History	8.35	8.55	9.20	9.20
(2) Geography	1.50	1.35	1.30	2.35
(3) Mathematics	6.10	5.35	5.0	5.50
(4) Science	3.20	1.0	2.15	3.15
(5) Applied Science	—	2.5	3.45	4.40 ¹
(6) Manual and Drawing	2.30	2.30	2.15	—
(7) Physical Exercises and Games	2.15	2.15	2.15	1.30
(8) Singing30	.30	—	—

Science.—The remainder of the time is devoted to optional work. Science is experimental, including physics and chemistry and nature study.

FIRST YEAR. *Physics:* Measuring and weighing, much attention to density and heat, using, e.g., milk as liquid: practical rural applications of expansion of metals: use of thermometer in dairy and greenhouse.

Chemistry of air: Effects of rusting in nature: carbon dioxide, weeds: e.g. vinegar: solution using materials known as artificial manures: action of sodium, potassium, and calcium on water: qualitative study of limestone.

Nature study: Observation lessons to bring out the idea of special adaptetic metamorphosis of insects to environment of plants: harmful and useful birds and insects: fossils of district: garden practice: simple pot culture.

¹ Part out of school hours.

SECOND YEAR. *Physics*: A series of exercises on percolation, surface capillarity, density to bring out specific gravities of different materials, principles of heat with special reference to soil temperature.

Chemistry of simple substances, boron and sulphur. Air and its constituents. Solution of gas in water and function of acids. Experimental study of water, its solvent action and solubility, preparation of salts: effect of acids in soil properties of starch and sugar.

Nature study: Simple morphology and physiology of plants—roses: stems: leaves: buds: fruits and their functions. Absorption of food by roots, transpiration, carbon assimilation, respiration, growth, experiment on influence of light.

Garden observation, e.g. modes of bearing fruit: selection of soil and subsoil, effect of tillage operations: nature of crops, growth, and their rotation: local climate. Continued study of birds, insects, and other creatures of the garden and field. Experimental culture of various plants, e.g. wheat, turnip, carrot, and parsnips.

THIRD YEAR. *Chemistry*: Simple quantitative analysis of limestone: hard water: slaked lime. Action of hydrochloric and nitric acids on various substances, neutralization, and nitrates. Preparation of ammonia and its action. Examination of sulphur, phosphorus, silica, and their properties. Preparation of starch and gluten and experiments dealing with conversion into sugar and fermentation. General character of metals.

Botany: Physiology further studied: plant ecology, a special study of grasses and representative species of practical importance among the cruciferæ and rosaceæ: leguminosæ: umbelliferæ: compositæ: liliaceæ, labiataæ, scrophulariaceæ.

Gardening, directed more towards carrying out experiments than growing of crops.

General field work: Physiographical change, especially weathering degradatis and depositis: elementary study of rocks and soils: application of manures: methods of preparing land for cultivation: the dairy: more particular study of well-known insects of the garden and orchard.

FOURTH YEAR. *Chemistry*: Laws of chemical combination: study of hydrogen peroxide: diffusion of gases. Comparison of bromine and iodine with chlorine. Bleaching powder. Compounds of nitrogen and sulphur. Action of nitric acid upon phosphones. Simple treatment of arsenic and its compounds. Volumetric analysis.

Botany applied to agriculture and horticulture. A study of seeds used on the garden and on the farm: of fungi and fungoid diseases: of selected species and varieties of well-known plants like potato, wheat, mangold, vetch: outside work of an experimental kind on soil, improvement through drainage and application of different manures: crops and their relation to soil: permanent pasture and the prevailing grasses.

An elementary knowledge of structure of animals and their mode of life. Bacteria: care of milk: and definite experiments on volition.

Mathematics.—In mathematics the illustrations are drawn from

actual experience and the measurement of fields, barns, and stacks—the cubical contents of farm appliances, percentage tables for butter, fat, manures, and the like. Particular care is taken that the examples are not fanciful but accurate and true to experience.

Geography.—In geography there is much practical work and local illustrations: the use of various ordnance maps: studies of direction and altitude and of soils: readings of the barometer and thermometer and rain gauge are habitually kept and used: all pupils take a course of surveying with chain, plane table, tacheometer, and theodolite.

Handwork.—Handwork is confined to wood: a study of trees in the district and of the timber they yield is included in the course: objects of direct usefulness on the farm and garden are chosen for construction.

Drawing is closely related with nature study; pupils are encouraged to use drawings freely in their observation notebooks as a mode of representation.

The school garden is attached to the school: it is half an acre in extent and so allows ample room for the experiments without the necessary disturbance which must follow the fresh allocation of plots each year. In addition there is a large orchard. For opportunities of acquiring some insight into agricultural operation, the school had the run over the home farm of the landowner of a large estate. The bailiff was always ready to answer questions and supply useful information. The school is fortunate in having a large collection of reference books bearing upon rural subjects in the library.

Lincolnshire Experiment

About the beginning of the century, following upon the great education exhibition in London, an interesting experiment took place in the county of Lincoln. It was an attempt to introduce a definite rural bias into certain centrally situated schools. Though for various reasons the practice was not universally adopted, yet with better organization and a longer school life it might well be revived. The essence of the scheme was what was termed the "manual method"; to quote the words of Mr. Christopher Turner, an enthusiastic supporter of the project and a member of the Education Committee, "it meant the giving of instruction in special manual subjects in such a way that the child will feel them to be part and parcel of the general school work, just as much as her geography and history. It will be found that three afternoons a week, or an equivalent time, can be devoted to the manual side of education without injuring the literary side but actually to its benefit."

The centre of the scheme was gardening, to which were added bee-keeping, keeping of rabbits and poultry, handwork developing into rural and domestic carpentry, and various minor subjects, best grouped together under the title of Handyman's Course, and readily illustrated by reference to the authorized books of the Boy Scout movement. The subjects were taken in a practical way: the tools of the professional bee-keeper were

handled;• the remedial measures with which the scientific poultry-keeper must be familiar were introduced; and the objects made in rural carpentry were not the rough and ready articles knocked together by nail and hammer. The timber must be properly planed, and the plan worked out to scale beforehand, and the drawer fitted to open and close completely and with ease.

All the other work centred upon this. Reading and recitation, practice in composition and letter writing, local history and geography, citizenship, practical arithmetic, mensuration and book-keeping, science, meteorology and nature study were all planned around this central theme. The correlation has certainly been pushed too far. English literature, for example, ought not to be confined within such narrow limits, neither should history and citizenship be so limited in their outlook. But there can be no doubt that the enthusiastic teacher, who sanely adopts some such plan as this can develop a bias without spoiling the essential general training of the child. As Professor J. A. Thomson has expressed it, the countryman thinks in different terms from the townsman—he thinks biologically, and his mode of expression follows suit.

CHAPTER IV

Non-selective Schools

The selective central school, which we have just described, is intended to deal, at least in theory, with only one of the three groups of post-eleven children. It is, however, the non-selective schools, which we have now to consider, which will of necessity be the most common type. In these or in senior classes will be gathered all the children who are not fortunate enough to be drafted to the selective central or to the secondary schools. The training in the non-selective central schools will be secondary, in the sense that it is post-primary, but it will differ both in extent and in character from that given in the other schools. These more than any other afford opportunities for careful and valuable experiment. The majority of their pupils will provide the workers, “the hewers of wood and the drawers of water” of the future, and it is important that the general course of training should be wisely and broadly planned. Tastes and interests may now be cultivated which will endure through life. In the main this will probably be the last opportunity for any intimate contact with the world of books which these pupils will have, and the library and reading-room, the wireless and gramophone, should be carefully and extensively used. Old Boys’ Clubs should link the school with the various movements for adult education. The school itself will probably be a centre for adult education.¹ The discussion of these activities lies outside

¹ See, for example, the organization of the Sawston Village College, Cambridgeshire.

the scope of these pages, but they are important. If these schools are to play their proper rôle they must not be deprived of the proper staffing, equipment, and accommodation. To do so would be to deny to the majority of our young adolescents the advantages of a training to which they are entitled.

Some authorities would like to provide the non-selective schools with appropriate curricula and rooms equipped to satisfy these new demands. But financial conditions will, it is feared, prevent others from carrying out the necessary reforms. Teachers must be patient and in their work keep, as far as opportunity allows, to the ideal they set before them.

Grading

The grading of these children will, in the early stages, cause some difficulty. Some will know a great deal, others very little; some will be capable and intelligent, others backward and even sub-normal. Generally, three groupings emerge—the average, the more intelligent, the less intelligent. Local circumstances may, however, justify only two. Methods of grouping differ very much from Authority to Authority. Some Education Authorities have established a form of selective central school for the better type of child not transferred to the secondary school, which they call intermediate. The rest of the senior children are drafted from the neighbouring schools and sent to form senior classes in a few selected schools conveniently placed, with ample classroom accommodation. This is the practice at Northampton. The Lincoln Education Authority has organized four selective and four non-selective central schools. Other Authorities, however, and these will probably increase in number, regard their selective central schools as embryonic secondary schools.¹ In Bath one selective central school has been established and four senior schools, among which children are distributed by the Education Committee, principally at the choice of the parents, conditioned to some extent by the geographical position of the home.

Scottish Qualifying Examination

Another much debated question is the type of examination which should be adopted in order to grade the children. The Scottish method of conducting a qualifying examination for entry into secondary schools is worth considering since the teacher plays such a large part in its conduct. It should be borne in mind that the qualifying class corresponds roughly to our Standard V–VI, and the stage is reached by the normal child about twelve years. The schedule requires that a pupil presented as aforesaid will be expected:²

- (a) To read at sight, with good pronunciation and with intelligent phrasing, narrative prose of moderate difficulty.

¹ Cf. Circular 168 (Wales), *Education of Older Children*, p. 4.

² This should be compared with the Kent scheme, see pp. 41–42.

- (b) To write to dictation, with good spelling and legible and regular handwriting, a narrative passage previously unseen.
- (c) To answer questions on the subject-matter of and meaning of words and sentences in the reading books in use in the class; these answers, when necessary, to be expressed in complete sentences or in a consecution of sentences.
- (d) To write a composition, the heads being given, or to give in writing the substance of a passage read.
- (e) To know the four rules of arithmetic as applied to whole numbers, easy vulgar fractions and decimals to three places, and to be expert in applying this knowledge to the calculation, both mentally and on paper, of simple sums of money and in the common weights and measures.
- (f) To be reasonably proficient in the other subjects included in the approved scheme of work of the class.

The examination is held once or twice a year, and in the first instance by the teachers themselves, who state on the schedule that the pupil has been placed in the qualifying class "in the ordinary course of school promotion". The teacher also gives a mark or letter value for each subject as an indication of his appraisalment.

The inspector may sample or may accept the list as presented and he will discuss doubtful cases with the teacher. Allowances are made for illness, and the standard is not rigidly maintained from district to district. It is an internal examination dominated by the teachers and standardized by the inspector who has close contact with schools.

In England the sorting will probably be most effectively carried out by those in immediate and daily contact with the children. The test will thus be one of attainment supplemented by the school record. To submit every child to a thorough psychological test at the stage of transfer is as yet impossible, nor is the public belief in the efficiency of such testing sufficient to justify its adoption. The practical problem is how to get these schools started, their classes formed, and the work begun. Internal re-arrangements may be expected when in later years more intimate knowledge of the children has been gained.

For some time, therefore, reliance will have to be placed upon a general test held before the school year opens. This should not be external, but a test planned and conducted by the teachers and intended as an aid to classification. The latter will depend upon what the children are and what they know. The information on the medical cards, provided it is written in intelligible English and not too abbreviated, should be very valuable. But it is the teachers who are the chief source of information. These records may be collected either as the result of conference or from the teachers individually. A card index system is the most useful method

of keeping a permanent record of the child's career. One such card which we have seen sets out the required information thus:

- I. Child's home conditions.
- II. Absence through illness—kind and nature of care needed in consequence.
- III. Any idiosyncracies.
- IV. Any marked abilities.
- V. Causes of retardation, if any—experiments or steps taken which have proved successful in producing progress.
- VI. Stages reached at end of each year's work.

This record is kept during the whole course of the child's school career.

The grading of the pupils in the schools will at first be likely to cause difficulties. In a large number of schools the three types of average, more intelligent, and backward are likely to appear in the same class. Even in the larger schools a goodly proportion of the classes will contain at least two groups. The teacher will himself have to decide whether he will try to conduct the class in sections or will frame one scheme for the average pupil, helping the two extremes when the need arises. Promotion within the school will also have to depend upon experience. Further, it must always be borne in mind that the allocation of pupils to different types of schools, selective or others, cannot be regarded as final. Opportunities for transfer to other schools, if difficult, should at least be possible. At Oxford, for example, a second opportunity for transfer to the secondary schools occurs at the end of two years after entry into the central school. The transfers to secondary and central schools, however, must not be so frequent as to "convert the non-selective schools into a residuum of intellectual hotch-potch".¹ But no bar should be placed before the gifted child or the pupil who develops late.

Northamptonshire Experiment

An interesting attempt to solve these difficulties as far as the non-selective schools and senior classes are concerned, is being tried in some of the schools of Northamptonshire. The author of the scheme assumes that the entrants to the central schools will fall into three groups according to pace, capacity, and knowledge. The *quick* (A group) will be those best equipped by mental gifts and training; the *average* (B group) will include those who have developed late; the *slow* (C group) those who have been irregular in attendance.

The essential feature of the scheme is that all the children of an age group should cover the same ground, but with different degrees of thoroughness and detail. The quick group, in addition, will deal with work which is hardly essential, yet adds to the common stock through beneficial skill and possibly knowledge. The difference will be seen particularly in artistic subjects such as drawing, painting, design, literary criticism, and composition. On the other hand in practical subjects much practice

¹ *Memorandum on Promotion in Elementary Schools in London*, p. 35. Most authorities now provide opportunities for transfer.

and greater variety are demanded to meet the needs of the slow group: the average group should also give some time to them, while for the quick group practical work is desirable but not essential.

The author illustrates his point by reference to two subjects: arithmetic and geography.

1. Before he leaves school every child should know what is meant by the following terms, and be able to work out sums in cash. Simple interest, bank interest, instalment purchase, sinking fund, averages, percentage, profit or loss, and the practical problems arising from work with carpets, curtains, linoleum, distemper, fowl runs and houses, tool sheds. The skill in working examples upon these will differ in pace and in the solution of the problems. In the slow group the capacity to solve problems may be absent. The knowledge of how often real instances of these occur will also vary in quantity, though all should know of at least one or two illustrations. Before leaving, all children should be quite familiar with graphs and their limits in accuracy. Even to the slow group a graph should be the proper tool for getting an approximate answer to a sum needing much labour to calculate correctly.

Written work in arithmetic should be classified, according to the difficulty and labour required, into the three grades, A, B, C. The quick group would do A and B, or perhaps all three; the average would do B and C; the slow group would work C questions. It is very important that all work set should consist of "real questions", not mere numerical calculations or abstractions.

Many C sums could be solved mentally by the quick group: the slow ones will have to calculate on paper. Other sums calling for measurements, for facts, and the use of graphs should be included. The B set of sums should contain more difficult calculations, and some longer as well as some one-idea calculations. On graph paper some interpolated reading might be done, together with the construction of curved graphs. The A set would include harder problems with two calculations and some two-idea deductions, or questions with more difficult wording.

In geography the three grades of work would be:

A. Search for causes from maps: deductions by method of elimination: writing on an original subject calling for inquiry.

B. Written answers but not mere facts—deductions and comparisons made from work set out in A and inquiries from books and atlases.

C. Things to do—finding of places in atlas, construction of sections, local mapping, weather records, use of the globe.

The maps drawn should be on tracing or butter paper to facilitate comparison, and of the same size as those given in the atlas. Each map should be limited to the matters in hand.

It should be possible to grade questions so that C questions at the end of the year are nearly as hard as those included in B at the beginning of the year.

The chief value of this system is that any child who shows sudden

development can be transferred from one section to another without difficulty and at any stage. The following examples in arithmetic give an idea of the underlying principle of the scheme.

QUESTIONS IN ARITHMETIC

Note.—It is of the utmost importance that all questions set should be real questions, not mere calculations.

A. 1. What did I pay for a shop if I make 5% on the cost by letting it at £17, 17s. 6d. a quarter?

2. A co-operative society pays 2s. 3d. in the £ dividend on purchases. How much profit per cent must it make in order to do this, and also put 2% to reserve?

3. A man borrowed £325 from a building society at 6% per annum. At the end of the first year he repaid £48. How much had he on loan during the next year?

4. I borrow £300 from an insurance company at 10% per annum on condition that I repay £100 and the interest at the end of each year. How much must I pay the company each time?

5. A man has £550 invested at $7\frac{1}{2}\%$, but has to pay income tax on the interest at 2s. in the £. What rate of interest does he really receive?

6. £250 was put in a bank at 3%, but at the end of three months the rate of interest was reduced to $2\frac{1}{2}\%$. What amount of interest will be received at the end of the year?

B. 1. A loan of £470 at 4% is repaid at the end of 3 years. What sum of money is paid, with all the interest?

2. A school costs £4500 to build, and the contractor has to borrow £2000 at 4% per annum for the last six months before it is finished. How much will this cost him?

3. A firm borrows £3650 for enlarging its shop and repays at the end of $3\frac{1}{2}$ years. What is the total interest paid at 6%?

4. For how many years must I lend £75 to obtain in all £20, 5s. at $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ per annum?

5. A man pays £1, 5s. per month for a loan of £250. What is the rate of interest?

6. A loan of £3000 for draining a housing estate is repaid after 5 years by a sum of £3825. What rate of interest was charged?

C. 1. It costs £6 a year to borrow £100. How much shall I have to pay for borrowing £700 for one year?

2. I can get 5% interest a year for lending money. How much shall I receive for lending £300 for 2 years?

3. I rent a house worth £600 and the owner gets $6\frac{1}{2}\%$ on the cost of building it. What annual rent do I pay?

4. A man borrows £1250 at 4%. What annual interest must he pay?
5. A town, for new water works, borrows £50,000 and interest is at $4\frac{1}{2}\%$. What is the cost in interest every year?
6. A shopkeeper pays for his goods six months after receiving them, but is charged 3% per annum. What will he pay for goods worth £400?

Scottish Supplementary Course

We have referred previously to the experience of Scotland. It may be helpful to give an analysis of the time-table for a supplementary course, which would roughly correspond to our third year in a non-selective school; that is, for pupils of 13-14 years of age. Courses A1 and 2 are taken from Glasgow, B from Edinburgh, and C from a small school in the vicinity of Aberdeen.

A1. GIRLS' SUPPLEMENTARY COURSE

	Hours a Week.
English (including History and Geography)	9
Arithmetic	5
Housekeeping	8
Physical Training	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Singing	$\frac{1}{2}$
To be allocated to ordinary subjects	1
Total	25

A2. BOYS' SUPPLEMENTARY (INDUSTRIAL) GROUP

	Hours a Week.
English (including History and Geography)	9
Arithmetic	8
Woodwork and Drawing	5
Physical Training	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Singing	$\frac{1}{2}$
To be allocated to ordinary subjects	1
Total	25

B. AN EDINBURGH SUPPLEMENTARY CLASS

	Hours a Week.
English	10
Empire (History and Geography)	2
Arithmetic	2
Practical Mathematics (boys)	4
Woodwork (boys)	2
Hygiene	1
Drill	1
Housewifery, Cookery, and Dressmaking (girls), 2 hours each	6
Singing	1
Religion	2
Total	25

In a particularly good rural course, where woodwork and gardening were both well developed, the allocation of time per week was as follows:

C. BOYS' AND GIRLS' RURAL COURSE

	Hours a Week.
English	5
Arithmetic and Mensuration (increased in wet weather)	4
Writing and Composition	3
Geography	2
History	2
Drawing	2
Woodwork (boys)	3
Needlework (girls)	3
Gardening (boys and girls)	4
Singing	1½
Nature Study, Notes, Records, &c.	1
Total	27½

Scheme of Work.—The schedules for the various courses are still of great assistance as suggestions to teachers and are therefore given in full.

A. The study of English.

The main object of this study shall be to create a taste for good literature. The chief means of carrying on the study should be:

- (1) Systematic home reading, with properly directed choice of books.
- (2) An efficient system of reviewing, explaining, and testing in school the reading done at home.
- (3) The committing to memory, after discussion and explanation, of suitable pieces of verse and of prose.
- (4) Systematic teaching and practice of English composition.

B. Certain studies bearing upon matters which it is of concern that all the pupils should know, whatever their occupations in after life are to be.
Under this heading may be specified:

- (1) The laws of health.
- (2) Money matters: thrift, investment, insurance.
- (3) The conditions of trade and employment.
- (4) The institutions of government under which we live.
- (5) The Empire: its history, growth, and trade; our Colonies, and the openings for enterprise which they afford.
- (6) Nature study, drill, and singing.

At this stage of study it is highly desirable that full use should be made of the Ordnance survey map of the district in which the school is situated, both in connexion with nature study, and also for the purposes of specific lessons in geography.

It is not considered imperative that all the topics mentioned under heading B (with the exception of (1) the laws of health) should be taken up with the same set of pupils.

I. Commercial Course

1. *Arithmetic*.—(a) The principles of arithmetic studied and exemplified in their application to cases such as actually occur in business transactions. (b) Training in expertness of calculation and in the use of short methods, including especially practical applications of the decimal systems (e.g. calculations in decimal money, rapid and direct expressions of British money in decimals of £, &c.).
2. *Book-keeping*.—The principles of book-keeping, illustrated by the keeping of accounts in simple form.
3. *Common Commercial Documents* (such as invoices, accounts, receipts, cheques, &c.).—Their purpose and form.
4. *Handwriting*.—Systematic practice to secure speed in combination with legibility and correctness of form.
5. *Shorthand* (optional).

II. Industrial Group

1. *Geometry and Mensuration*.—(a) Construction and measurement of figures drawn to scale by the use of compasses, protractors, set squares, &c. (b) Construction and the use of graphs. (c) For advanced pupils, mensuration of regular solids.

Note.—The teaching throughout must deal with concrete problems, and the use of mathematical instruments, correct methods and exactness of measurement must be looked upon as of prime importance.

2. *Applied Arithmetic*.—Including especially decimal operations, the metric system, and money calculations such as occur in industrial transactions.
3. *Woodwork* or *Ironwork* (or both).—Workshop practice, from working drawings made by the pupils.
4. *Mechanics*.—The simple principles of mechanics; and with more advanced students, elementary problems in machine and building construction.

III. Course for Rural Schools

1. *Nature Study*.—Continued so as to secure on the part of the pupils familiarity with:
 - (a) The rocks, soils, and plants of the district.
 - (b) The life histories of weeds and insect pests, with the remedies against them.
 - (c) Wind and insect pollination of plants.
 - (d) Relations of air, water, and soil to vegetable and animal life.

Note.—Instruction in the above subjects must throughout be of a practical character. To this end, school gardens should be formed and

made use of; observations on bees and bee-keeping should be made where possible; and advantage should be taken of any agricultural experiment stations in the neighbourhood.

2. *Geometry*.—As in the industrial course, but more especially in its applications to land measuring and surveying.

3. *Study of Newspaper Market Reports*.—With exercises and calculations based upon them.

4. *The Keeping of Accounts*.

5. Optional.—*Woodwork* (or *Ironwork*) as above.

IV. Household Management (Girls') Course

1. *Housekeeping*, including:

(a) Care of rooms, furnishings, and clothing.

(b) Marketing, and the keeping of household accounts.

(c) Cookery.

(d) Laundry work.

(e) Needlework: especially mending, darning, and cutting out.

Note.—All the above subjects must be taught practically.

2. Special extension of such topics under B (1) as bear upon the health of the individual and of the family.

3. *Arithmetic*.—As applied in the calculation of prices and the practical use of the common weights and measures.

4. *Scale Drawing*.—As applied to the making of diagrams for cutting out (optional).

5. *Dressmaking* and the use and care of the sewing machine (optional).

Navigation

(Suggested Syllabus for Elementary Schools)

First Stage

Form and dimensions of the earth. Meaning of the following terms: navigation, seamanship, axis of the earth, north and south poles, equator, equinoctial line, meridian, latitude, co-latitude, longitude, difference of longitude, course steered, rhumb line, departure, distance. To know the general construction of the mariner's compass, and to explain what is meant by variation, deviation, and dip of the needle. To work examples of finding true course from magnetic course, and vice versa. To convert degrees of latitude into miles, and miles into degrees of latitude, and degrees of longitude into time, and time into degrees of longitude.

Second Stage

The first stage; and to know the use of azimuth compass, and to be able to construct a Napier's Card for given deviations. The nautical mile, and length of a knot, leeway. Instruments for measuring the speed of a vessel. Plain sailing and traverse sailing. Easy examples to be worked.

Third Stage

First and second stages; and use of soundings, parallel, middle latitude, and Mercator's sailing, a Mercator's Chart to be constructed from table of meridional parts; data given by the inspector (mathematical theory of chart not required). Easy examples in the above modes of sailing to be worked.

Note.—Concurrently with the above, elementary mathematics might with advantage be studied, and it is reasonable that a very rudimentary knowledge of trigonometry should be imparted in the last stage. Besides the simple textbooks, managers should at least provide a cheap boat's compass (in a box), a book of nautical tables, and a local chart.

Practical Work

No time for practical training has been fixed in English schools, though in rural districts it may occupy about one half of the week. The amount of time desirable must be a matter for experiment. It is important not to give the child a distaste by excessive attention to the practical side, nor to run risks of injury to health at a most important stage of life. Harmonious development is more likely to be fostered by a judicious mixture of book work and practical work. Time-table difficulties may, however, help to decide the issue, and the alternate session method of running the work has simplicity on its side.

Specialized Rural Work

A form of specialized work for central schools and senior classes in rural districts which appears likely to find favour is represented by a scheme now under trial in Somerset, and in modified form elsewhere. At present children begin this work at eleven years of age, but with the idea that they should for two years be brought into association with country occupations before leaving, and that they should be attached to the same school through evening classes after leaving. When the school age is extended, it is probable that the specialized course will not commence so early.

In the approved schools the scheme for gardening is much expanded, as well as that for experimental science. More time is devoted to them and sections are added which have a direct bearing upon agriculture. Visits of observation conducted by the headmaster are arranged to approved farms, dairies, nurseries, and poultry farms. Whenever possible an expert from the County Agricultural Institute is also present. These visits take place once a month. Due preparation for the visit by instruction and discussion is expected, and full use is to be made of the facts acquired in the subsequent lessons. Schools are encouraged to add other practical subjects as the teachers find themselves sufficiently expert, and in particular the keeping of poultry and bees and possibly pigs. The handwork and other practical subjects are closely related.

In addition short intensive courses in dairying are planned. Each course

lasts a fortnight and is conducted by the county agricultural staff. The first week is devoted to talks and demonstrations on butter and cheese-making, the pupils helping in various ways. In the second week they receive practical instruction at a selected farm in milking, preparation of the cows, and the care of the dairy. Such work takes up only one session a day; usually the course falls in the winter.

Another week, during the summer, is devoted to practical work in making butter and cheese for those who, in the first course, showed special aptitude for practical instruction. Some teachers who do not find it possible to relate the instruction given by the agricultural expert instructor with their school work, may yet think it advisable to devote time to the kind of work for which country industries call.

A course suited to such an outlook is in operation in Hertfordshire. Basing their decision upon the accepted idea that school instruction should take into consideration the child's environment, the Hertfordshire Education Committee in 1926 encouraged the visits by school children to see competitions in skilled agricultural work, and to farms and other places where rural industries are carried on. Experts from the Agricultural College were to take charge of the work and a curriculum was set out in fair detail for the guidance of the schools. Emphasis was laid upon the kind of calculations in arithmetic most helpful to the future farmer, import of food supplies and questions of transport, elementary biology, experimental work in gardening, and rural handwork and cookery.

The visits to farms are to be made with particular objects in view, for which purpose leaflets have been drawn up with questions simply worded and of a kind which can be answered from direct observation. The form of the leaflet permits of concise answers being written opposite the questions. The pupils are expected to set out the information more fully at the schools. The leaflets are arranged under the following headings: ploughing, seed sowing and potato planting, harvesting (hand implements, power implements, grass crop, stacking), threshing, root crops, hedging, soil improvements, dairying, shoeing a horse. Each section contains about fifteen questions.

CHAPTER V

Senior Classes

We have now to consider the problem of the senior classes, central departments, higher forms, or whatever term may be applied to that form of post-primary instruction organized in the same building which contains junior and possibly infant classes under the same head teacher. Sometimes the post-primary group will be confined to children trained in the junior school; others will be strengthened by drafts from neigh-

bouring schools. The assistant teachers will be concerned chiefly with the school as a whole, giving instruction in their special subjects to the older children. But specialization as found in the selective schools and even the classification into groups of varying capacity will rarely be possible.

An enthusiastic teacher may with advantage take up certain lines of inquiry or development, and in such work the field for the teacher with initiation and resource is almost unlimited. At this stage particularly he can lay the foundations of wide interests which may well become life-long. Even with these children, endeavours should be made to formulate a "curriculum sufficiently comprehensive in range to avoid undue narrowing of outlook, and sufficiently varied in character to arouse latent interests and dormant capacities".¹ Often the work may be closely allied to the life of the community. In a seaside town, for example, a teacher interested himself in the study of the sea wall behind which sand dunes had accumulated. From this arose exercises in measurement and calculation, drawing, sketching, colour work, and scale drawing. Plants, animals, and their habitats were studied, as were the specific gravity and solvent qualities of sea water. Geographical features, such as the movements and erosive action of tides, the shifting of the sand and the difference in the size, distribution, and character of the pebbles. In another school a regional study of the district was undertaken. Inquiries were made into past and present methods of land cultivation, the distribution of farms and villages, the variations in the soil and crop, the shapes and boundaries of parishes, and similar topics.

Experiments in Advanced Curricula

In many of the top classes of the elementary schools advanced instruction has already been attempted. Much of this is fragmentary and necessarily incomplete, but it is valuable as illustrating the kind of work which is possible. We have chosen below examples from some London schools to show what can be done even with limited opportunities and means.

"Some have more or less temporarily segregated the definitely dull and backward children, calling them, say, Standard VIB, have given them a special syllabus with a practical bias, and have placed them under a particularly gifted teacher. For the remaining children, they have more or less completely recast the schemes of work in one or more subjects and have dealt with the work in such a way as to throw the children very largely on their own resources. The result is that no child is at a standstill; there is ample scope and encouragement for initiative and experiment. The following notes indicate the lines on which a few of the most successful of these experiments have run.

"(a) BOYS' SCHOOL.—In a very poor district. The top class is divided into three groups and each group includes sections under a boy leader. The course includes practical work, drawing, applied mathematics, and lessons on the scientific principles involved. Each group gets weekly:

45 minutes'	practical work.
45 "	drawing.
45 "	mathematics.
30 "	oral teaching (for which they are massed).

¹ *Regulations for Secondary Schools*, 1921, Cmd 1399, Chapter I.

"The following apparatus has been constructed, or is in course of construction (materials are often just odds and ends).

"Electric switches (single, multiple, double, stud and knife); leyden jars (from scrap) and other electrical apparatus; railway models (straight track, curves, junctions, cross-overs, levers, signals, &c.); candle-burning alarm, automatic fire alarm, search-light, hand-pump, periscope, heliograph, buzzers, aeroplane-glider, swing-bridge, models of sections of shells, torpedoes, &c.

"Before the war a workable wireless telegraphic apparatus had been fixed on the school building.

"(b) GIRLS' SCHOOL.—In a fairly well-to-do neighbourhood. The top class follows a special course of allied handwork and needlework, the aim being to encourage suitable girls to aim at becoming eventually skilled industrial workers. A special handwork and needlework course is combined with drawing and practical arithmetic. Standards VI, VII, and VIII construct, cover, and decorate boxes, stencil covers and curtains, make bead-work and other millinery trimmings, cut out, make and embroider garments for themselves. They also make children's toys, dolls and animals of various kinds.

"(c) GIRLS' SCHOOL.—In a very poor neighbourhood a few years ago girls of thirteen were regularly withdrawn through Labour Examinations; the attendance was poor and girls who stayed till fourteen went to casual, unskilled, and uneducated work. The curriculum of the top class in the ordinary subjects was modified; more time was given to handwork and needlework in which were included designs and lettering, art embroidery, bead work, lace making, and weaving on looms. The result was that the girls remained steadily at school, and many on leaving obtained remunerative posts as skilled workers.

"(d) BOYS' SCHOOL.—This school makes a great point of handwork in the following sequence: paper, cardboard, light woodwork (not merely prepared strips), heavy wood (manual training), also metal (before the War), clay modelling and simple wood-carving. The wood-carving is exceptionally good and shows the advantage of preparatory clay models. The standard reached is much beyond what has been considered possible in the ordinary school. A good deal of science apparatus is made.

"Two potters' wheels were constructed with an old sewing machine treadle, and some of the boys have made pottery (sometimes coloured with ordinary water colours). The drawing with instruments is very good and includes work in drawing with projections of quite difficult things.

"(f) GIRLS' SCHOOL.—In a fairly prosperous neighbourhood. The first class contains girls preparing for various scholarships, and the second class consists of old, backward girls. Both classes devote special time to handwork, in addition to the ordinary periods for needlework and drawing. The handwork in the first class consists of the making of flat wooden toys on stands. This work requires considerable manipulative dexterity and also affords artistic training in colour and design. It is preceded by courses in paper and cardboard modelling and also some light woodwork. The second class specializes in the making of toys, such as dolls and animals. The needlework includes the ordinary plain sewing and embroidery. The other side of the school is not neglected, original effort being encouraged in English, History and Geography, and a high standard in Arithmetic is maintained.

"(g) GIRLS' SCHOOL.—The top class is organized as a definite Trade Scholarship Class. All the girls do the Needlework, Embroidery and Design of the Trade Scholarship syllabus, even if they do not wish to enter for the examination. Provision is made for forty-five to sixty minutes of private study at home every evening, and there is also set apart a definite period each afternoon for preparation of work for the following day.

"(i) GIRLS' SCHOOL.—In the heart of theatrical London. 167 on roll and a top class of 38. Special attention is given to Literature and History; the course includes the reading of five or six plays of Shakespeare and some Greek and Roman History. A Shakespeare Club has been formed which meets once a week.

"(j) BOYS' SCHOOL.—In a residential district. It specializes in history and geography. A room is set apart for each subject; the history room contains historical drawings, paintings, and models made or collected by the children; the geography room contains weather records in great detail and other illustrations. There is also

a special room for science, handwork, and nature study, with which latter subject gardening is allied."¹

Proposed Advanced Courses

The main task of the teacher with this type of pupil will be to create interests, possibly of life-long duration, which the child can begin to cultivate in the school. So he will have to rely mainly upon his own initiative. There are diverse plans and projects which he may select, but they must accord both with the pupils' desires and his own interests. An unpublished memorandum on an investigation lately carried out into the aims and methods of advanced curricula by Mr. Stobart,² which he has kindly allowed us to use, offers one solution. Mr. Stobart writes:

"Let the elementary school first ensure that the primary foundations are sound by a thorough test of capacity, especially in reading, writing, and arithmetic, at or about the age of eleven. On that foundation a three- or four-year course is to be built. It must include ample provision for physical exercise, real exercise, sufficient to engage the full combative instincts of the adolescent, with the sporting element so prominent as to instil the notion of fair play. It must include also manual instruction, leading especially to a mastery of simple tools and materials appropriate to the sex of the child, be it spade or chisel, needle or brush. The main part of the work must still be its intellectual side, and the main vehicle of instruction must be the book and pen. The 'perfect guardian of the ideal republic' will be on its intellectual side, well-informed as to past experience, acquainted sympathetically with the countries and peoples, at once critical and imaginative, able to experiment and judge fairly. But he must also be civilized and humanized, with some feeling of beauty in form, sound, and colour.

"All this sounds like the old Standard VI curriculum described in language of idealism. Nor, indeed, is anything startlingly novel intended. It is not possible within the limits postulated. The chief novelty advocated in this memorandum is that the advanced work should be narrowed and intensified and that it should accord with the circumstances. It should possess a new coherence, a unity, a purpose, not vocational but human. Its bias should not be commercial or industrial but educational, and should vary according to the aptitude and capacity of the teacher. This can best be shown by examples. Let us suppose that 10 hours a week are abstracted from the time-table for maintaining the necessary level of efficiency in the ordinary subjects of primary instruction, including formal physical exercise, arithmetic, manual training, scripture, &c., and that the remaining 17½ hours are allotted to one of the various types of course outlined below.

"*Historical Course.*—A period or a branch of history is selected for detailed study from several good books written by historians of repute for adult intelligence. The children work out the geographical connexions, study and learn the poetry of the period, read some of the prose literature, perhaps one or two good biographies of the men and women of that day, write little theses of answers to questions proposed by the teachers to be worked out by the children, sing the songs and study the pictures of the period. This course groups Reading, Writing, Literature, Poetry, Geography, Art, and Music with History.

"*Geographical Course.*—A country or region is selected scientifically from the geographical and geological point of view. Mathematical exercises are based upon its statistics, graphs are drawn, experiments are made with the plane-table and rain- or wind-gauge. The historical features of the country are studied particularly in

¹ *Memoranda on Promotion in London Elementary Schools*, pp. 36–38. See also *Some Experiments in the Teaching of Science and Handwork in certain Elementary Schools in London*, 1920. The document treats of various schemes in handwork and science combined which gave "a sound working knowledge of a much wider range of scientific phenomena with a bearing upon daily experiences than could be obtained under the conventional textbook treatment of science."

² Now educational adviser to the British Broadcasting Corporation.

geographical connexions. Books of travel are read, poetry is chosen in reference to the main subject. Maps are drawn artistically as well as accurately. Perhaps even the songs of the country may be included. This course groups Geography, History, Mathematics, Science, Reading, Writing, Literature, Drawing.

"Mathematical Course."—The Algebra and Geometry of old Standard VII are developed into Trigonometry and Elementary Mechanics and these are used in connexion with Geography in Practical Surveying, Science and Manual Work in the workshop. This course groups Mathematics, Science, Handwork, Geography.

"Science Course."—This is similar to the previous course, but the scientific aspect is brought to the front and the mathematical part is subordinate. If Botany, Nature Study, or even Physics are chosen as a central part of the course, Reading, Writing and Drawing (even Poetry and Literature) can easily be correlated.

"English Course."—A period or aspect of Literature is chosen, taken as the centre. Songs of the period or subject are chosen, illustrative drawings made, compositions are written. The history of the period or the geography of the land may be brought into connexion, or the work may be centred around the production of a journal containing literary, historical, geographical, and scientific articles.

"Language Course."—A Head Teacher who had visited France several times might choose France and French as the centre for a course; the writing would then consist mainly of translation from and into French. The reading would be mainly in that language. The history and geography of the country would be studied and possibly a reading of the charming works of Science which are characteristic of French writers might take the place of much of the Science teaching. French songs could be sung and French pictures studied. The grammar of English as well as that of the foreign language would not be neglected.

"Art Course."—Another Head Teacher might decide to make the appreciation and practice of certain art forms the centre of his course. Besides the actual drawing and modelling and craftwork in various materials, reproductions of great pictures could be studied and the critical writings of Ruskin read. Children could be asked to write their appreciation or describe the work they had seen and practised. With such a course might well be allied a training in music and the appreciation of music as a sister art. The teaching could be applied to needlework.

"Gardening Course."—Here the main activities of the advanced work would be grouped round the school garden or the school "small holding", much as described in the memorandum on a Rural Special Subjects Centre. Mathematics, Science, Handwork, Drawing, Writing are the obvious correlatives, but reading and poetry could easily be connected with it.

"Domestic Course."—Here the combined housecraft work would be the focus round which would be grouped Mathematics, Art, Science, Reading, Writing, and Hygiene.

"Handwork Course."—Mathematics, drawing, and science grouped round the construction of certain apparatus make the manual room the centre of instruction under a Head Teacher of strongly practical bent. Or the bulk of a year's work might be based upon some practical plan such as the construction and equipment of a model bungalow in the playground.

"The principal advantage claimed for the group course is the educational profit which arises from viewing a subject from different aspects. It is educational astigmatism which renders the vision of the elementary school so blurred, flat and lifeless. This is most remarkable in a subject like History. Experience shows that History learnt from a single textbook is almost valueless; when two sources of information converge an impression is created; but when a subject is studied from several points of view it becomes real and lasting. This is, after all, pure Herbertian gospel and a commonplace of pedagogy."

Minor Industries Bias

In districts where only minor industries are found, a general bias may be introduced in the later years. Even in such an unpromising subject for vocational work as the working of stone, teachers have devised methods of linking it with the general scheme of work. Thus in some

schools in the stone-working district the approach in the early years is made through art, and the children are trained in the development of a keen sense of form, mass, and proportion. This is followed by instructions in design on paper in order to secure a good proportion and spacing, with special attention to lettering of different types. Plasticine modelling is introduced in order to develop quick appreciation of depth of cutting and surface appearance. Towards the end of the course special emphasis is laid upon (a) artistic design, (b) science including geology, and (c) a course in stone work and the tools suitable thereto. Such a course deals with tools for different processes and their purpose, the qualities of different materials used, the simple cutting and finishing processes: cutting of sample ornaments from casts in order to develop accuracy in measurement, application of ornament.

In other cases special work is done with the latter, using the softest stones. Much attention is given to design and a quick interpretation of shape by hand and eye, and also to the various methods of securing smooth and polished surfaces.

In another area the bias was developed from the science and the practical side. Much attention was given to mensuration, geometry, and applied mathematics and the elements of building construction and architecture. Some geology was included with the general science, which consisted for the most part of mechanics with some heat and electricity, and an elementary course in design was supplied.

Portland Intermediate School

The following course is being developed at the Portland Intermediate School¹ attended by boys who go almost entirely into the local stone works:

The course consists of: •

1. Drawing: mechanical; sketching; and applied art.
2. Science: geology; chemistry; mechanics.
3. Mathematics.
4. Handwork: wood; clay or plaster.

Drawing.—The chief aims in a course of this description are:

- (a) To develop the power to visualize objects of three dimensions.
- (b) To give some training in accurate measurements and a knowledge of drawing to scale.
- (c) To give some training in the methods of setting out, geometrically, conventional forms.
- (d) To develop an appreciation of the artistic and the power to adapt natural forms to conventional treatment.

Geometry.—Exercises dealing with lines and angles; construction of rectilinear figures; parallels and proportionals; circles; regular and irregular

¹ A school which admits pupils of all grades.

polygons; problems dealing with inscribed and escribed circles; sectors and triangles; ellipses; application of practical geometry to the drawing of arches and columns; various forms of arches and columns; geometrical pattern work; and tracery, leading to conventional window design; application of geometry to the construction of various types of mouldings and arches; construction of borders; parabolas; hyperbolas, cycloids, spirals, and volutes.

Solid Geometry.—Solids in various positions; plans and elevations to scale; sections of solids at various angles and various projections.

Scale Drawing.—Working drawing to scale, with special attention to portions of buildings, doors, windows, fire-places, &c.; copies of period design; isometric and oblique projections.

Sketching.—The drawing of various floral and leaf forms, and their adaptation to conventional design and tracery. The sketching and collection of all kinds of antique mouldings, patterns, tracery work, and mural decoration from old churches, &c.

Science.—The course in science is designed to give an elementary knowledge of geology, especially of the local rock formations; the chemical formation of rocks, and any chemical actions occurring.

In addition some study should be made of the mechanics of the various tools employed.

Geology.—An elementary study of the occurrence of the various local strata. Local rock formations and their value industrially. Types of local rocks, with some study of their history and structure.

Chemistry.—An elementary chemical study of the constituents of local minerals. Weathering—causes and processes employed in protection of buildings. Action of smoke and chemical impurities on types of stone.

Mechanics.—Levers; wedges; pulleys. Mechanical operations involved in the use of various hand- and power-driven tools. Strains and stresses of rocks, with special study of strains imposed on stonework in buildings.

Mathematics.—The study of mathematics should be sufficient to enable students to solve any mathematical problems occurring in the course of their employment. Revision of various arithmetical rules; mensuration of various plane surfaces; mensuration of solids; practical workshop arithmetic.

Handwork.—In this subject an attempt should be made to develop dexterity in the handling of tools, and to acquaint students with the correct methods of making joints, &c., used in building construction. The course, should, in addition, enable students to execute in a practical manner their own artistic ideas.

i. Construction of useful articles in wood, introducing the types of joints especially used in building construction.

ii. Methods of jointing used in stone, wood, and metals, e.g. dovetailing, dowelling, pinning, tongue and grooving, &c.

iii. Running of mouldings used in connexion with models made under paragraph i.

iv. Wood carving: relief and incised carving in wood of decorative work such as may be reproduced in stone.

v. Handwork may also include some work with clay or plaster as a preliminary to decorative work in wood and stone.

Bias in Seaboard Districts

Near the sea something has been done occasionally to give a bias to the instruction by adding to the staff someone with practical experience, an officer or a boatswain. Such a person teaches rope work as a form of handicraft at Brixham, while more specialized courses are developed at Lowestoft, Scarborough, and Rotherhithe, and elsewhere.

At Scarborough a scheme somewhat similar to that followed in industrial schools, which prepare boys to enter the navy, is adopted; it includes: mechanics and drawing associated, leading up to general engineering and motor engineering; practical navigation or seamanship: various types of boats are available for use; signalling, ambulance work, plain cookery; history of exploration and seamanship; geography, dealing particularly with the fishery trade.

The course had not been fully developed when these particulars were obtained, but it was understood that the more practical work was not begun until the third year, when five sessions per week were devoted to the technical side of the training and at least two or three more sessions to the general mathematics and drawing.

Rotherhithe New Road School

At Rotherhithe New Road School a retired master mariner is retained on the staff. The course of instruction in which the bias prevails is three years, and the boys enter the Royal Navy and pass as indentured apprentices into the Merchant Service at an age approaching sixteen, many of the latter continuing under instruction and after four years passing the Board of Trade Examination.

The course¹ for the three years is designed for this special purpose. It includes:

Seamanship.—Boats, their fittings and management; bends and hitches; knots and splices; splicing in wire.

Navigation.—The compass and the chronometer and correction; meridian altitude; parallel sailing; Mercator's sailing; azimuth.

Signalling.—Morse and semaphore to a minimum speed of ten words per minute by the end of the course.

Science.—General elementary science with much emphasis laid upon mechanics; an elementary course in electricity and magnetism; a practical course in wireless telegraphy.

¹ Kindly supplied to us by the headmaster.

Geography.—A regional survey of the world with special emphasis upon physical geography and oceanography.

History.—Treated especially from the point of view of the citizen.

1. Historical development of the Dominions and the place of the navy in connexion with it.
2. Leading movements of the nineteenth century.
3. Civics: freedom of the (i) person, (ii) press, (iii) speeches and public meetings.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and the trigonometry of the right-angled triangle, and oblique plane trigonometry.

Rural Senior Classes

It is, however, in the rural districts that the proper organization of the senior class will be most difficult, chiefly owing to the lack of staff, both in regard to number and qualification. Already much has been done through peripatetic instruction in such subjects as gardening, dairying, domestic subjects, hygiene and physical exercises. In some areas a travelling van for domestic and dairy subjects enables lectures by experts to be given to adults and children. One county by such means organizes courses lasting eleven days. The syllabus in dairymaking comprises milking, churning, milk-testing. Some pupils were drafted for poultry work—a three weeks' course—and for cheese-making. Local organizations often give valuable help. Experts connected with the Rural Community Council, the Women's Institute, the Worker's Educational Association, may all add to the common stock. In a Hertfordshire school a club of seventy boys and girls was formed with the head teacher as leader. The club was interested in gardening, poultry, and bee-keeping. Land near the school was rented, necessary materials were made by the woodwork class, and most of the work was done out of school hours. Modern appliances are in use and graph records are carefully kept. Other clubs are more ambitious and keep calves. But for various reasons the care of small live stock appears to be the most suitable.

In the Dominions various plans have been adopted. In South Australia a staff is maintained at Adelaide for the conduct of correspondence classes for children in parts where no school exists. The subjects include geography, history, arithmetic, and even drawing. When the initial difficulties of reading and writing are overcome progress is regular and satisfactory. Similar work is done in New South Wales, where apparently it is found that the children through their weekly exercises develop considerable powers of expression and of the arrangement of facts. In Canada and also here much is being done by wireless, a mode of instruction of great possibilities which has yet to be fully investigated.

The Parents' National Education Union

One branch of work may be mentioned here which has already proved of valuable service in Gloucestershire and in many other schools throughout

the country. It is the system established by Miss Charlotte Mason, and known as the Parents' National Educational Union. The methods of this body need not be set out at length. Briefly, attention and interest are gained by the intrinsic value of the reading material presented. This literature is changed from time to time after careful consideration. The teachers are advised to keep in the background. The children read either silently or aloud, and at the end of each portion they are asked to express what they have read in their own language. But not only do the children read books worth knowing, they also retain what they have read by the process of narration or recitation. There is no re-reading, no revision at the end of the term. Yet the terminal examinations, which are a feature of the method, prove that very exact impressions are made and retained. So far as its application to each particular subject is concerned it assists, because for each term a book is prescribed and periodic arrangements allocated: it supplies expert help in direction where the staff with its limitations, due to training and lack of interest, may not feel equal to advanced instruction.

In Gloucestershire the cost has not permitted the provision of all the prescribed books for every subject programme. Usually one or two subjects of the curriculum do not conform with the system. All the schools, however, are regularly examined by the headquarters staff in at least one subject. Thus the standard expected is made clear to school and pupil.¹

CHAPTER VI

Arts and Crafts²

In the teaching of this subject it is above all essential to know the capacity of the pupils and the teachers, the industrial conditions of the locality in which the school is situated, and obviously the materials and appliances available for teaching purposes. The first task is to separate those teachers and pupils who have some artistic sense and those who have not. If the pupils have had a reasonable chance of developing under artistic teachers it should be possible to make this separation at the age of twelve years. Those who have little or no artistic sense will probably contain some whose "fingers are all thumbs", who will never develop any manual skill, or who may become clerks or labourers. Some will reveal interest in science (not natural history) or mechanics. These may be interested in geometrical and mechanical drawing, but will never develop any skill in pictorial or representative or decorative art. It is thus possible

¹ See publications of the Parents' National Educational Union, 26 Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

² This chapter has been compiled from notes supplied to us by W. W. Scutt, late Inspector of Drawing in Training Colleges.

roughly to form two divisions: (1) Artistic drawing, where the pupils will be such as have interests mainly in representational pictorial drawing, and those who have special interests in decorative work. (2) Drawing with instruments where pupils show constructive ability either in wood or metal or both, and others whose main bent lies in physics or chemistry.

Occupational Grouping

The grouping according to occupations presents more difficulty, though three types may be distinguished.

1. The outdoor nature-loving group, comprising gardeners and farmers and others interested in plants and animals.
2. The definitely indoor group such as the shopkeeper or the clerk.
3. The mechanical group. This type of pupil is fond of doing and making. He is the artisan of the wood-making and metal-working grades.

For such grouping the following courses may be arranged.

1. Outdoor Group

Drawing.—Shown under nature study and gardening (see Drawing, Group C); some constructive drawing.

Handwork.—Construction of various things used on farm and garden, also of simple apparatus for experiments in plant growth.

History.—Special treatment to show how civilization has developed through improvements in land cultivation.

Geography.—With special reference to the interchange of food products, timber, &c.

Reading.—A very wide field bearing on nature and the products of the earth.

2. Indoor Group

Drawing.—The bias should be towards decorative work, with special attention to colour and proportion as required in window-dressing, decoration of rooms, and advertisement display.

Craftwork.—Special attention should be paid to needlework and allied arts as well as to writing, printing, and bookcrafts.

History.—Special reference will be made to the development of arts, crafts, and industries.

Geography.—With special reference to international trade.

3. Mechanical Group

Drawing.—Here a strong bias will be given to mathematical and constructive work.

Hand and Craftwork.—Selections will be made from the various branches of woodwork and metalwork.

History.—Special attention will be paid to the constructive achievements of mankind—architecture, shipbuilding, bridgebuilding, machinery, electrical apparatus.

Geography.—Reference will be made to man's adaptations and alterations of nature, e.g. the making of roads, canals, railways, harbours, water-works.

Reading.—Here a wide scope is available dealing especially with human achievement, travel, and adventure.

In illustration of the above, the following notes will be useful.

Drawing

- A. Illustrative } often overlapping.
- B. Decorative } often overlapping.
- C. Scientific } often overlapping.
- D. Mathematical } often overlapping.
- E. Constructive (associated with B, C, and D).

A. ILLUSTRATIVE.

Literature.¹—Illustrations (a) explanatory, (b) imaginative, of scenes, incidents, meanings of words, &c.

History.—Pictorial records drawn from real things, not copied from drawings; or drawn from contemporary illustrations, e.g. manuscripts of buildings, costumes, armour, &c.

Geography.—Pictorial records from real scenes when possible, of typical forms of land and water in coast, river, and mountain scenery; of typical landscape dependent on geological formation; of cloud forms; mostly outdoor work.

B. DECORATIVE.—This form of drawing involves construction and design; it is dependent on tools and materials and is associated always with crafts and handwork. Decorative design depends both on

- (a) Mode of execution; e.g. painted as in pottery; carved as in sculpture and wood-carving; incised or engraved in clay, wood, stone, and metal; hammered as in repoussé and other beaten metal work; modelled as in clay modelling; moulded as in cast-metal work, plaster, &c. (both modelling and moulding are employed in pottery); woven or plaited, as in textiles, basket-work, &c.
- (b) Materials: e.g. clay, wood, stone, metal, glass, flexible fibres, leather, &c.

¹ Literature might be associated with arts and crafts through the writings of many artists and craftsmen. For instance, Reynolds' *Discourses*, such chapters from Ruskin as those on composition in *Elements of Drawing*, some of William Morris, Alfred East's *Landscape Painting*, and even Sargent's *The Enjoyment and Use of Colours*, all contain reading which would interest and delight children. Longfellow's *The Building of the Ship* should be read to show the craftsman's joy in a piece of good workmanship.

Decorative design may be roughly classified according to the crafts from which the forms are derived:

- (a) Lines, bands, chequers, plaids, as in weaving, plaiting, basketry, needlework.
- (b) Interlacings, twists, cable and rope patterns, as in basketry, plaiting, weaving, some forms of metal work and leather work.
- (c) Spirals, scrolls, as in wrought- and bent-metal work.
- (d) Any forms in solid relief as in modelling, wood-carving, sculpture, metal work.
- (e) Any forms on flat surfaces as in painting, drawing, printing.

C. SCIENTIFIC.

Elementary Physics and Chemistry.—Drawings and diagrams of apparatus, &c., and graphical records of observations.

Nature Study,¹ plant and animal life.—Drawings (coloured drawings frequently necessary) recording things seen, e.g. leaves, flowers, fruits, and seeds, studies of seasonal developments, &c.

Gardening.—Some of the above, also diagrams showing methods of pruning, grafting, lay-out of gardens, crops, &c.

D. MATHEMATICAL (with instruments).

Geometry, Arithmetic, and Mensuration.—In addition to mathematical geometry, many of the interesting applications of geometry in design should be given in the appropriate connexion; e.g. the setting-out of all-over patterns, the use of foiled figures in architectural window tracery, &c.

E. CONSTRUCTIVE (mainly with instruments).

Associated with C and D and especially with Handwork and Design.—The basis of constructive drawing is geometry and accurate measurement; and children do not realize the need for accuracy unless things are actually *made* by them from their drawings; hence, constructive drawing is inseparably connected with handwork.

Handwork and Craftwork

The usage of these terms in educational circles is usually such as to imply that in "handwork" artistic considerations are either unnecessary or entirely subsidiary, while in "craftwork" artistic qualities are essential. Both subjects are fully dealt with under the sections on HANDWORK and ART, Volume III.

¹ Special emphasis should be laid, particularly in teaching design, on the wealth of beauty, both of form and colour combination, displayed in nature. Even the most exact geometrical forms are found in crystals, in sections of stems, seeds, &c.

CHAPTER VII

Organization

Staffing

The head teacher of these new schools will occupy an important position, which should be acknowledged as equal generally to that of the heads of all secondary schools. Not only is he the director of his little adolescent world, he is also the essential link between it and the community which the school serves. Thus he should be no narrow pedant: his interests should be wide and his relations with industry and commerce should be real. In the majority of the central schools the head teacher will almost certainly be qualified to take specialist responsibilities. But his main work will consist rather in fostering the many-sided activities of his school, and in securing that the proper traditions are being formed. He should, even in the largest schools, have time for teaching. Consequently the position of the head teachers, as in all schools of post-primary grade, should be distinguished by scholarship and training. If those are present then the schools will take their due place in our secondary and higher system of education.

The teacher in these schools needs also special gifts in the management of the young adolescents. Taking his share in developing the general interests of the school, he should be able to attract his pupils and encourage them to give of their best. Such gifts are not of necessity developed by long years of service. The enthusiasm and vision of the young teacher from college also have their place. In these schools, however, even more than in our present secondary schools, the demands made upon the teachers will be more varied and possibly more exacting. From the outset the new central schools should be staffed by teachers capable of specialist work, though probably in the smaller schools the teacher will be responsible for more than one subject.

It is also important that the head teacher should be given considerable freedom in the choice of his assistants. Qualifications and recommendations are essential, but he alone knows what is required and the type of teacher who is needed. Some education authorities still choose teachers for the central schools, as for others, on grounds of seniority and length of service. These qualifications are valuable, but they are not all, and it is important that the fitness of the teacher for this special kind of work should be carefully considered. In "associated" schools serving the same community there is no reason why there should not be free interchange of staff, as in many cases there will be common use of playing fields and of the rooms for art and practical instruction.¹

The size and composition of the school staff will necessarily be decided by the particular needs of each school. In the larger central schools of

¹ See Circular 168 (Wales), *Education of Older Children in Wales*.

280-320 pupils, specialists for almost every subject will be available. In the smaller schools a not uncommon grouping is history with English, geography with science or mathematics. As a general rule central schools have been organized for girls and boys separately and will be staffed accordingly, though financial considerations will in some areas warrant the establishment of mixed schools. In certain cases an interchange of staffs has been arranged whereby, e.g. a male instructor takes the girls in mathematics and science, or a woman teacher takes the boys in English literature. In the mixed schools of selective type a woman as first assistant, together with women assistant teachers, is usually found. Head teachers differ as to the best course. One asserts emphatically that it is more useful to have girls under women than boys under men, another that the attitude of the sexes towards the future is so different that it is impossible to teach any subject other than music in common. In most, however, separate classification from the date of entry is the rule.

With a staff composed as is suggested above, there is no reason why the general procedure should not be the same as that of the secondary schools. Liberal staffing is essential. No rules can be laid down, but any specialist staff would find it difficult to plan continuous teaching throughout the day, and this must mean a more liberal staff than our education committees have hitherto been prepared to face. Variations in the types of classes needed make it impossible to suggest any scale of staffing except that it should not be lower than that for the average secondary school. It is at present not uncommon to work upon a scale of one teacher for every forty pupils, a low standard compared with the average of twenty-five to thirty pupils in the secondary school, since proper instruction in practical subjects involves the organization of half classes. Many schools will take applied drawing and practical mathematics, experimental science, handwork, or domestic subjects and perhaps drawing. These may well occupy the time of every child for the afternoon sessions. The subdivision required in many subjects must, however, mean additional staff.

Standard of Attainment

A note may be made here in regard to the standard of these schools. The complaint often heard of the work in the top classes of the primary schools was that it was insufficient and the methods ill-adapted to the needs of pupils quite different in outlook from the younger children in the school. Yet this is by no means always the case. Mr. Stobart, whom we have quoted before, writes: "It has been proved by demonstration that children are capable of appreciating a far higher standard in literature, especially dramatic literature, than had previously been supposed. Thus country children of eleven and twelve take a profound interest in and show a critical intelligent appreciation of a play like 'King Lear'." This may be exceptional, but there is no need to stay the work of these older pupils. Many schools, drawn towards the Junior Local Examination of Oxford and Cambridge, find the preparation quite easy for pupils of

14-15 years, following a well organized system of instruction. Indeed, in the higher grade schools of thirty years ago, many boys were well advanced in algebra and wrestling with the sixth book of *Euclid* at the early age of 14 years.

The Subnormal Child

On the other hand, in the organization of these schools the needs of the subnormal children should receive special attention. Various causes account for this type of child. In one town where reorganization has been completed the removal of the brighter children to secondary (and intermediate) schools has caused a marked improvement in those who are left. The backwardness was due, at least in part, to neglect or to lack of special care within the class. The majority of the class was habitually attending the clinic, and while not cases for special schools yet were easily tired and found it difficult to concentrate on their work. In such cases and when the groups are large, it is doubtful if much is gained by organization for special subjects. These children need individual help in English and arithmetic, help which is best given by the same teacher. Geography and history may also well be taught by the same kindly helper. In the treatment of these cases a quick understanding, patience, and ready adaptability are essential. Thus it is the all-round teacher, fitted by temperament to handle each individual case, who does the best work. Under the care of such a man or woman, children improve rapidly and often take their place with pupils of average ability. It is essential, however, that small classes should be organized for this type of child. When numbers are large, separate classification is possible. Incidentally it may be remarked that it might be advisable to cater for the small proportion of very bright children in special classes. Their continual segregation is, however, not good for the rest of their fellows. On the other hand attempts to economize by the provision of insufficient staff should not determine the range of school work by leading, as it so often does, to classification on an age basis regardless of capacity or attainment.

In dealing with this type of child then, the teacher should set before himself a different aim. The chief difference in the school work is one of pace. This child will have fewer opportunities in the world outside, for it works slowly, reasons with difficulty, and finds problems a difficult stumbling block. Thus, it is better to secure exactness on a lower range of knowledge, to teach him to solve easy problems quickly and accurately, to accept leadership and to obey orders intelligently and smoothly. So there will be differences in the type of work which is chosen. In English less attention will be given to abstract thought, and more to exactness of expression, and the right choice of work or pleasure. In geography less stress will be laid upon cause and effect and more training in map work and description. In mathematics a more limited range will be given with more insistence upon practical work in measurement. Such a scheme has been successfully worked in a school known to us where three teachers

are provided for the average group, and two who give their time entirely to the children of low capacity, the balance being maintained by spreading the equivalent of a year's work over eighteen months.

Leaving Examinations

The problem of examinations is bound to arise though they should not be made the dominating end of school work. As far as internal tests are concerned, these may be held at the discretion of the teacher. It is useful both for teacher and taught to be able to test the progress of the work from time to time, and they serve also to encourage care and precision, but they should always be regarded as a means, an instrument of use, and not a weapon of destruction. Tests on leaving school fall into a different category. It has been asserted that the present secondary schools are swayed too much by the influence of external examinations over which they have no control, and that the central schools should not be brought under this sway and with this view we are in full sympathy. Various solutions have been put forward. The Hadow Committee suggested that some kind of examination at the leaving age was desirable. They were not, however, desirous of forcing these new schools into the existing examination system.¹ Another scheme is that which places reliance upon the annual record of the pupils and the recognition of the school by some supervising authority. Pupils then would be granted certificates with the consent of the supervising authority upon their school records. A few education committees grant certificates to pupils of central schools who stay for the whole course and in the opinion of the teacher have satisfactorily completed the course. Such certificates often have considerable local value, even though they are not based on the result of formal examinations. Many teachers would prefer to accept a recognized examination such as the Oxford Local Examination. Another plan is to establish a new local examination under the ægis of a recognized authority, such as a joint board, composed of representatives of industry, the local university, and the schools. One important education committee proposes to establish such an examination. One university college has already undertaken the supervision of the examinations of the central schools in an industrial city. The examination papers were drafted by the teachers, and modified by a board of examiners. The scripts were marked by the teachers and standardized by the board. The external examiners also conducted a viva voce examination of the pupils and discussed with the teachers the school records. Practical subjects were inspected only. The only paper set by an external examiner was that for a series of mental tests. Here also is room for ample experiment, in which great care and patience must be exercised. No universal remedy is to be looked for or desired. Two points of general interest may, however, be noted. In every system of examination two factors must

¹ *Report on the Education of the Adolescent*, pp. 152-3. Cf. scheme put forward by Dr. Edwards, p. 46.

always be borne in mind: first that the practical and applied subjects should be adequately tested, and secondly that due weight should be given to the actual record and to the opinions of the staff.

If, however, a pupil is fit for examinations he should not be denied the opportunity. In the past certain central schools have organized evening classes to prepare their brighter pupils for examination. But by free transfer to other schools or the formation of special classes, such pupils should in the future be properly directed. Experience does not suggest that a certificate gained through examination is required by the bulk of industrial employers. As long, however, as bankers, insurance offices, accountants, and chemists demand certain formal certification, it will be difficult to resist the claims of pupils from central schools to present themselves for examination. Nor should it be forgotten that some universities take entrants who have not passed through the secondary schools. This is particularly the case on the engineering side. In the dockyard towns central schools endeavour to prepare pupils for engineering occupations, and also to start them on their way towards university work in engineering.

Home Lessons

In general, home lessons will probably be resorted to in the central schools as much as they are in the secondary schools. There is much to be said for and against them. Home conditions vary considerably, though pupils at this age seem capable of working under almost any conditions. It is common experience also that homework at this stage has considerable effect upon the rate of progress. Wherever circumstances permit homework will probably be required. But careful adjustments will have continually to be made. Equipment in all cases will not allow of much scope. Unless books are provided free, few will be available for home use, and the homework will have to be set with this in view. Such exercises as arise from revision work, the working of problems, the expansion and memorization of notes are, however, all possible.

Relation with other Post-primary Schools

It is now generally agreed, at least in theory, that opportunities of easy transfer should be available between all post-primary schools. It should, of course, be possible for pupils developing late to transfer to other schools in the same area. Yet in practice transfer may rarely occur and then only in isolated cases. Some central schools arrange for certain pupils to enter the secondary schools at thirteen years of age. When the numbers are sufficient the pupils are formed into a special class parallel to the classes of the same age. In one French was continued, but not Latin. In some selective central schools in London and elsewhere, pupils are transferred at about sixteen years to the nearest secondary school, are entered for the First Schools Examination, and then take the advanced course in preparation for university work. This plan has some resemblance to that adopted by the Scottish Education Department, by which pupils

of some intermediate schools have to be sent on to the secondary schools for the last years immediately preceding university life. But even in Scotland rival interests and ambitions have prevented the full development of the scheme.

The prospects of general transfer in either direction do not appear to be likely within the next few years unless areas undertake the re-organization of post-primary education as a whole, and group all secondary, central, and senior schools under one local governing body. Yet even within the selective central schools of double bias a pupil rarely passes from one side to another. On the other hand transfer from central to junior technical schools and private commercial schools has been common. At Oxford, for example, the education committee hold a scholarship examination for pupils of thirteen years of age which seriously depletes the upper classes of the central schools. Occasionally also pupils in the central school are allowed to pass at sixteen years into part-time classes at the technical college. Similar arrangements have been contemplated for rural central schools, and in certain cases employers choose their apprentices from those who have completed such a course. In every case the needs of the community must predominate: careful surveys, investigation, and experiment alone can produce the best results.

School Premises

The ideal for school premises for post-primary work generally put before the public by teachers and educational reformers alike is that they should be of the same general type as the best of our secondary schools. It cannot, however, be said that all our secondary school premises conform even with present-day regulations. Moreover, the cost of erecting central schools on the latest model is so great that any such plans will not be widely accepted in our generation. More likely is it, with the birth rate at its present figure, that existing schools will be adapted to accommodate the increase in numbers, and additions will be made to provide the practical workrooms, new schools being built as circumstances permit.

The main essential in the erection of a central school is the provision of a sufficient number of classrooms of adequate size, suitably lighted, heated, and ventilated. One room should be allowed for each teacher. Sufficient space between the rooms should be allowed to prevent classes disturbing one another when at work. In size the ordinary classroom should allow at least 12 square feet per child, and should be nearly square, or of a convenient oblong shape, so that the desks may be arranged to enable the pupils to face the teacher. Though not essential, single desks are to be preferred to double, and they should be light and easily removable. Lighting should be ample at all times of the day. It is important to have the room well heated, for children cannot do good work if cold and uncomfortable. Cross ventilation is better than many artificial systems: hopper windows with glass sides at the bottom and swing panels at the tops are easy to manage and usually effective.

It is very convenient and advisable to possess a hall. Still, very good work has been done where an assembly room (in which massed singing and the like takes place) can be formed by folding back movable screens. The provision of fit quarters for physical training may cause trouble, and yet outside sheds lightly constructed with open sides are the only accommodation in many a school which, nevertheless, can show a good record for physical exercises.

The playground should be of liberal dimensions. The regulation that 30 feet space be allowed for each child is scarcely worth consideration. Even if the ground as it exists must be accepted, a playing field as near the school as possible should be secured. The physical development of the adolescent demands ample space for organized games and recreation. In areas which are self-contained, arrangements may be made for the joint use by all the post-primary schools of playing fields, gymnasium, and other facilities.

Most trouble will arise, however, in the attempt to adapt old buildings to the requirements for the various forms of practical instruction, such as drawing and practical mathematics, experimental science, handwork and domestic subjects. In several cases good covered playgrounds have lent themselves to adaptation for such rooms. Elsewhere provision is made by simple erections with cement-asbestos roofing. Various authorities such as Norfolk and Birmingham have evolved useful temporary buildings, using cement blocks or sheeting. Rutland has converted old army huts. A room for drawing, in which, if it is available, practical mathematics, needlecrafts, map studies in geography may be taken, is useful. But it should be properly lighted. For such work 20 feet per child should be the minimum space. Tables should be provided which may be placed side by side to take large-scale drawings and maps. The science or practical room need not contain the elaborate equipment of the orthodox science laboratory of a secondary or technical school. Many an old room on a top floor has afforded convenient temporary accommodation. Occasionally an old school with a big open roof has been sealed at the wall-plate, the space above lighted with dormers for a workroom, while the angles of the roof give provision for convenient storage space. In any case it is important that ample space and abundant storage room should be available. At Stroud a separate block was erected for handwork on the ground floor, and science and drawing rooms on the first floor with a garden close by. This is a favourite mode of meeting the demand. If a handwork room on the ground floor can be provided apart from the classroom buildings it is much the better plan. Where metal work is taken in the same room more provision is needed, or a lean-to erection outside should be provided in which a forge can be housed. It is possible to use a room alternatively giving handwork to the boys and domestic subjects to the girls. We do not recommend this plan. The steam which seems to play such a necessary rôle in the teaching of domestic subjects interferes with the proper care of tools, while much rearrangement is called for when benches must be

converted into tables for cookery. Often a cottage in the vicinity lends itself better to domestic work.

Spacious cloakrooms and accommodation for cycles and even cars, will be needed in the new buildings. Lavatory accommodation should also be ample and efficient. Pupils travelling long distances will need changes of clothing. Each child should have a locker in which dry stockings, slippers, and a change of clothing can be stored. There should also be proper provision for quickly drying clothes. A measure of self-help may well be looked for. Slippers, for example, might be made in the handwork course, stockings and even school costumes in the needlework lessons.

Each school should possess a good school library. This may be supplemented in the urban area by the circulating school library of the town, in the rural area by supplies from the county libraries. In the selective central schools the rapid growth of libraries has been very noticeable. In some they are based on gifts from friends and old pupils: in others a small weekly contribution is made. The education committee also contribute small grants. For the adolescent pupil training in independent reading is imperative. It should be possible for the specialist teacher to set special topics and expect his pupils to collect the information from suitable books.¹

The School Meal

When new premises are provided and especially for rural central schools, it should be remembered that members of the staff and scholars must be on the premises much longer than in the urban schools, and will probably have to remain for a midday meal. Comfortable teachers' rooms should be provided where rest and quiet may be found. There is much justice in the teachers' demand that the provision of meals should fall outside their work—that a rest between the sessions is necessary if they are to teach efficiently. Yet, as in so many school affairs, compromise has found a solution. In many schools teachers supervise the meal in rotation and see that it is conducted in orderly fashion. Some go farther and look upon the work as an essential part of the school work. The artistic arrangement of the meals and tables, the training in decent habits, are both an important part of the training in social manners. Where girls take cookery it should not be impossible to arrange that the food thus cooked should be used for the school meal, even if it lies outside the scope of the examination syllabuses. The provision of school meals should afford ample opportunities for the preparation of a series of appetising dishes. It should also be possible for girls learning housecraft to be trained to lay tables properly, to wash up dishes, and generally to clean and tidy the rooms when the meal is over. If large numbers require cooked meals, regularly paid help should be obtained, for the provision of the meals must not unduly hinder the progressive developments of the cookery

¹ For further information see *Books in Public Elementary Schools*, 1928.

course. But this course will benefit by close contact with the needs of the individual pupils.

It has been objected that in many schools the cost of meals is prohibitive. Yet even if children bring their own food they may be provided with hot drinks. For this, suitable stoves are needed on which kettles can be easily boiled. But even in such cases, care should be taken to see that the meals are decently served, and properly eaten. Tables may be made attractive with a few flowers and evergreens. A roll of American cloth, easily washed, and rolled up when not in use, is better than an ink-stained, crumb-littered, dirty table. The provision of the school meal may be made one of the most important parts of the school curriculum. It is here that community manners tell most; here, too, that example will spread most easily to the home. The nature of the meal itself calls also for careful management. The progress of children is too often dependent upon proper nutrition. In the towns periods of unemployment, in the rural areas the long distance to school with insufficient supplies of food, all take their toll from the children. In the rural areas especially the provision of properly constituted meals may well become a regular feature of school work. In one school we have visited two hundred children take the midday meal, which is served in the school hall. Each pupil pays $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ a week towards the general expenses; only thirty are served with a meal prepared by the cookery class. In another school the initial outlay on apparatus and utensils was borne by the parents, and army huts have been converted into dining-rooms. In a large number of schools two-course dinners are provided at a cost varying from $6d.$ to $9d.$

ENGLISH

BY

ROBERT FINCH

*Author of The Approach to Literature
and How to Teach English Composition*

ENGLISH

CHAPTER I

Introduction

Without attempting invidious comparisons of the various subjects which go to make up the modern curriculum, we may assert that no subject is so important as English. Upon the pupil's success with the various departments of his English studies will depend the extent of his communication with his fellow men, and his capacity for entering into and understanding the thought of others. Since, too, all his own thinking will be but the development of the thought of those who have gone before him, as well as of those amongst whom he lives, it is no exaggeration to say that the quality and depth of his own mental life will depend almost entirely upon his mastery of the English language. Everything he receives from others, everything he gives to his fellows, is intimately bound up with English, and is dependent upon the extent to which he has mastered the arts of writing and reading his mother tongue.

So much is obvious to anyone who reflects at all upon the matter, but nevertheless it is a fact that the importance of English has not been generally recognized in schools. There are reasons for this, which must presently be discussed. It has been taken for granted that the pupils speak and read English, and that all English teachers are competent to teach the subject. Books have not always been well chosen from the point of view of English, even though as sources of information they may be excellent; and, even when they have been obtained as accessories of the teaching of English, they have not been selected with the same care and discrimination which is given to the choice of a textbook of mathematics or chemistry.

The Teacher

The teaching of English in some schools, in brief, has only too often been a haphazard matter. The subject has seemed, in the words of the report of the Departmental Committee, something "to be entrusted to any member of the staff who had some free time at his disposal".¹ To

¹ *The Teaching of English in England*, pp. 9-10 (His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1921).

some extent, the elementary and secondary schools have followed the older practice of the public schools. But whereas in the latter there was ground for the belief that correct English might be "picked up" through daily life and contacts, there was none at all for thinking that the majority of pupils attending the elementary and secondary schools could ever learn correct usage of English through listening to the people amongst whom they lived. The public schools have come to realize that definite instruction must be given if pupils are to speak and read and write well, and to learn how to distinguish good literature from bad or commonplace; and discerning teachers in the elementary and central schools, who have long realized the need of such instruction, are still seeking ways and means of ensuring that the teaching may be such that the majority, if not all, of their pupils shall leave them with the capacity to write clearly, to read intelligently, and to enjoy good literature and receive inspiration from it. Clearly, such work cannot be done by everyone. It is necessary, then, to inquire what are the special qualifications which fit teachers for the task of teaching English. The first of these, essential in teachers of juniors and seniors alike, is the ability to read well and to write simply and clearly. The fact ought to be faced squarely that not all teachers are capable of doing either.

To read well seems to be a very simple matter. It is not. Fluency, ease, and just expression are not easily acquired. Fluency calls for perfect mastery of the sheer mechanics of reading, the ability to read well ahead of the words which are being actually uttered, as well as ease of utterance. Ease adds something to this requirement; calling not merely for mastery, but for mastery without obvious effort. Fluency and ease most people can attain, if they will but practise enough. "Just expression" falls within a different category. It implies something more than sheer mechanical mastery of a series of words. It implies a mastery of their meaning and the capacity to convey this meaning by the proper use of the voice. Words are grouped into phrases which are distinguished from one another by pauses of the proper length. The pitch of the reader's voice varies, rising and falling. The tone changes from soft to loud. The rate alters from rapid to slow and deliberate. People who can read with ease and fluency are not uncommon, but those able to read with just expression are rare. Only these rare people can be safely entrusted with the teaching of English.

From teachers of juniors we expect not merely the ability to write simple and clear English and the ability to read well, but also some knowledge of the proper method of dealing with these subjects in class. The teacher, that is to say, should have acquired, through training or some adequate substitute for it, a knowledge of how to assist children to acquire the arts of reading and writing.

From teachers of seniors we expect this and something more. The senior pupil's tasks are more difficult than those of the junior pupil, naturally, but we find with him the necessity of something more than

mere achievement. He needs to know, not merely how to write correct English, but why this English is correct; not merely how to avoid errors, but why these are errors to be avoided. The teacher must possess knowledge which, though an asset to a teacher of juniors, is not, in his case, indispensable.

The day is past when such knowledge could be gathered, for the purpose of a single lesson or a series of lessons, from the notes appended to a cram-book. The university degree, sometimes a degree in honours, is nowadays often demanded from the teacher of senior pupils, not because a university degree has necessarily any great value in itself, but because it is a guarantee that a man has seriously studied his subject under the direction of an authority upon it, has made investigations at first hand, and has acquainted himself with methods of gathering information for himself. In other words, we require the university degree, not only as an indication of the possession of information, but as some assurance of a correct attitude towards a subject. There is no suggestion in this that we do not find qualifications of the highest character in men without university degrees: no experienced teacher would make so stupid an assertion. But for the teacher of seniors we demand qualifications of the sort which are indicated by the possession of a university degree; and appointing authorities, seeking such qualifications and unable to examine candidates themselves, will naturally prefer to appoint increasingly in the future men whose work has received the hall mark of university approval.

Something more, however, is required—something which cannot be assured by the possession of any university degree whatsoever. This is a real enthusiasm for the subject, coupled with a fine taste for what is good in literature, and linked to an ability to inspire this enthusiasm and communicate this taste to others. There is no paper qualification which can guarantee this: it can be recognized only by another who is quite or nearly an equal.

There is no doubt that such a taste can be cultivated and the teacher who wishes to make himself a worthy teacher of English must cultivate it. He can do this only by reading constantly the best literature he is able to obtain. He must, in the first instance, follow sure guides. If he follows long enough, and not blindly, he will come in good time to know the way himself. He will come to know the good from the merely meretricious. He will gain in the actual process of learning a valuable knowledge of the difficulties in the way of true literary appreciation, and this will be of inestimable service to him when he comes to teach.

General Teaching Method

Here, at the beginning, before we proceed to the discussion of detailed syllabuses and methods of teaching, one point must be insisted upon; a point generally ignored in textbooks and constantly overlooked by even the best teachers. This is the *child's motive*. Consider a concrete instance.

A poem has been read to a class, and the children have enjoyed it thoroughly. The teacher tells them to rewrite the poem in their own words. Later, she is disappointed with the result—that is all to the good, perhaps. But she is inclined to believe that the poor reproduction proves that she has failed to make them appreciate the poem: there she is wrong. Why should children, because they have appreciated a beautiful poem, want to rewrite it in their own imperfect way? Does not the wish to rewrite it rather show that the child has failed to appreciate properly? If a child is pleased when he has reproduced a Constable landscape with crayons from a penny box, does he not show at once that he fails to see the original picture as he should? If a teacher has really led children to a true appreciation of a little masterpiece, of poetry or prose or painting, the children will be satisfied with it. They will not want to reproduce it in their own way. If they do not *want* to do it, motive is absent, and the work will be badly done.

Again, the child who has appreciated a piece of perfect prose knows very well, in advance, that his efforts to rewrite it will fail. He cannot achieve the perfection of the original. Consequently, when we set him this particular task, we are asking him to do something which he knows he will do badly. He has no motive for doing what we ask, but he has a real and strong motive for refusing. In connexion with English studies, we are constantly asking the child to perform tasks which are not intrinsically of great interest. Reading, writing, and spelling are in part mechanical tasks, somewhat dull in their nature. Every adult can see a number of reasons why the child should master these arts, but only those who have a real insight into child life and an understanding of the child's outlook are able to appeal directly to the child's own motives. It is useless to try to stimulate an infant to write well by telling him that good writing is a help to getting a business post in later life (though something of the kind is often done). But the desire to make his own Christmas cards or to write a letter to a loved relative can be a very real stimulus. The writing of invitations to a party, a concert, or a dramatic performance in the classroom may be used as a motive for good writing and correct spelling. Towards Christmas time, children will learn to spell the names of the objects they desire as gifts, so that they may write readable letters to Santa Claus.

The desire to be like someone who is admired, the desire to please a loved person, the desire to excel, the desire to beat a rival, the desire to achieve a result—all these are motives which the wise teacher will utilize. He will discover that they vary greatly at different ages and in individual children. The teacher of English will not waste his time if he watches his class at play, trying to discover how the energy directed towards games can be directed towards English work. He will note the conditions and forms of verbal expression in connexion with playground activities. Mr. Caldwell Cook has already demonstrated, in his work at the Perse School and in *The Play Way*, that the play spirit can be

introduced with advantage into the classroom. Teachers may not be able to copy Mr. Caldwell Cook—indeed they should not, since mere imitation is opposed entirely to the whole spirit of his work—but they should undoubtedly try to acquire for themselves something of his outlook.

We may sum this up by saying that the teacher should so try to organize the life and activities of the class that mastery of English work shall be a real advantage to the child in the classroom; adding to his opportunities of distinction and to his happiness. This child keeps a class record because he writes so clearly, another calls a roll because his enunciation is so good. Competition for rôles in class plays incites children to speak well. Opportunities for lecturing, reciting, and reading to the class are the rewards of excellence. Not only the personal praise of the teacher (though discriminating praise is worth much) but honoured participation in the life of the class, follows good work in English, and cannot be obtained without it. The teacher is constantly making use of the child's own motives. The children are co-operating with him in the work of the school. He is enlisting the whole of their efforts, which was never the case when the mechanical parts of English teaching were taught through drills, mainly unintelligent, enforced by the punishment of the unwilling.

The Teacher's Library

A word or two should be said about the teacher's library. The teacher of English will constantly meet with material in newspapers, magazines, and in books which will suit his purpose far better than that which he will find in textbooks written for him; or which will, at least, supplement this matter. It may be a brief, well-written article dealing with a topic of current interest. It may be a good short story. It may be one of the charming little poems which appear from time to time. These he should preserve, and the best way of keeping them is to paste them in books, loose-leaf books for preference. Nowadays it is quite easy to buy such books cheaply. A quarto size is very convenient. The books should be numbered or lettered in series, and an index to their contents may be kept in a proper index book. Such a collection of material, always ready for use, is invaluable, and no teacher of English can afford to dispense with something of the kind.

The teacher's bookshelf, too, should not contain only the books we are in the habit of referring to as "classics". Many children in our schools are led (perhaps unintentionally) to believe that all the writers worth studying are dead. Consequently, they study the classics in school, and out of school leave them severely alone. They read modern writers, but regard them as being completely different from the "classic" authors. The teacher must not forget that children will grow into men and women, reading for the most part contemporary literature. Children should leave school able to distinguish the good from the bad; and with a marked preference for the good. The teacher who ignores modern writers does not adequately prepare children for adult life. Ella Wheeler Wilcox and

Marie Corelli owed their popularity to the fact that thousands of readers, who had studied English at school, believed that the one wrote poetry and the other literature! Clearly their English studies had not taught them discrimination or developed taste.

The teacher's library should contain some "dreadful examples". It should contain novels, poems, essays—interesting specimens of all forms of written English. All of it need not be the work of men with famous names. It should be chosen because it is good of its kind, because it is useful, because it can be appreciated by children and is likely to stimulate them to emulation. The teacher should not merely accumulate it: he should know it thoroughly and use it constantly. Some indications of the way in which it may be used will appear later in this book.

CHAPTER II

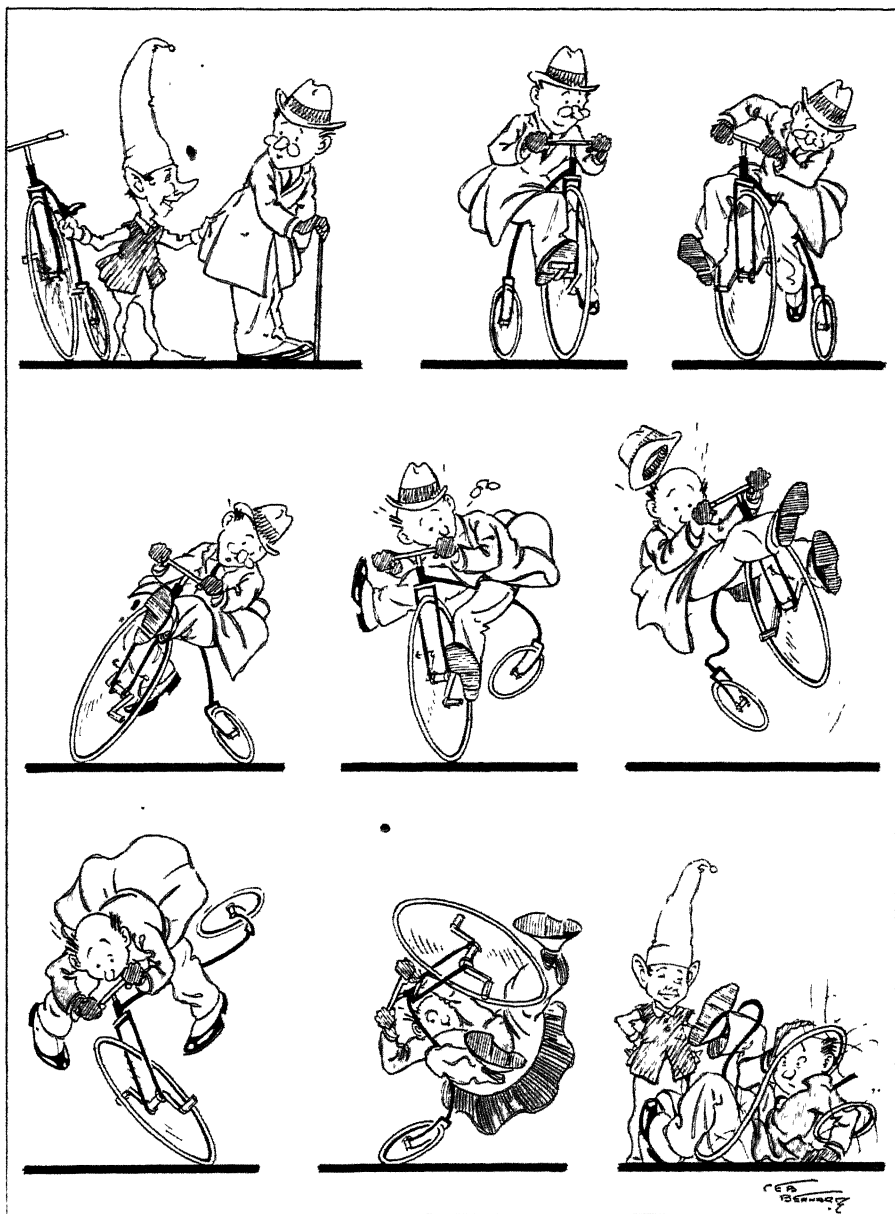
The Junior School

The Reading Lesson

The child of eight years of age is nowadays able to read with fair fluency a number of easy texts. Generally speaking, the teacher selecting a reader should be careful to choose one which is not too difficult. The words themselves should not be too hard, and the various topics and narratives should be such that they can be comprehended at the end of one or two readings. We are not here advocating a policy of "softness", but merely pointing out that the matter in a number of school readers is such as to hinder the pupil from learning to read properly. The pupil cannot read with fluency, ease, and just expression if we insist on making him run only obstacle races, nor can he comprehend a chapter as a whole—or even a paragraph—if there is a real difficulty in every sentence.

The reading lesson in the junior school should really be a reading lesson. It should not be given up to talks by the teacher about the subject-matter of the text, or to explanation of words, or to spelling. The aim of the lesson is to read in class a certain portion of reading matter, and to give practice to as many children as possible. The teacher should arrange that this is done, and no temptation should induce him to ignore the fulfilment of this aim.

Nevertheless, something must be done about words that are strange and new. The best plan is to deal with them before the lesson. They are written on the blackboard, preferably in a script which resembles the type used in the reading book. They are pronounced by the whole class, and their meaning indicated; the object of this exercise being that they shall be read without hesitation and understood without difficulty when they are met in the text.



THE BEWITCHED BICYCLE

Again, something must be done to ensure that the matter of the reading lesson has been understood, both in part and as a whole. That is to say, the reading lesson should be followed, after a short interval, by a lesson on oral composition. The two should take place on the same day, whenever possible, but if another lesson is allowed to intervene, there is less likelihood of boredom.

Composition

The oral composition lesson which follows on the reading lesson should not be an explanation by the teacher. Nor should it consist of brief answers by the children to more or less elaborate questions. The teacher must aim at getting complete statements from the children. "I want you to tell me what we were reading about this morning." "We read about a man who flew in an aeroplane from Croydon to Paris." This is a perfectly satisfactory piece of composition. Contrast this pupil's effort with the following ones:

Teacher.—"What were we reading about this morning?"

Pupil.—"An aeroplane."

Teacher.—"Who was in the aeroplane?"

Pupil.—"A man."

Teacher.—"Whence did he fly?"

Pupil.—"Croydon"; and so on.

This may be a test of what the pupil remembers of what he has read, but it is not an exercise in oral composition. The object of oral composition is to give pupils an opportunity of expressing themselves orally in good English, and this aim must be kept in sight throughout.

Many of the pupils will repeat *verbatim* statements from the reading book. These should be accepted. They are correct English, and as such they fulfil the object of the lesson. It is far more important to be correct than to be original in English; provided the remembered phrase expresses the meaning satisfactorily, there is little point in substituting another for it. It is well, too, that the pupil should accumulate a store of correct sentences which he may use with confidence on appropriate occasions. He may change these in various ways, to suit other occasions, when he can use them properly—and only then.

A great deal of the written composition proper to the junior stage should aim at the construction of sentences upon approved models. "A man flew in an aeroplane from Croydon to Paris" may be written on the blackboard and copied by the pupils into their books. The teacher erases the words "flew in an aeroplane", "Croydon", and "Paris", and asks the pupils to rewrite the sentence, using other words in place of those rubbed out. One boy will write, perhaps, "A man rode on a donkey from Shoreham to Brighton", and another "A man drove a motor-car from London to Portsmouth", and yet another "A man sailed in a boat from Dover to Hull". Exercises of this kind are based on a sound procedure:

it is the sentence, not the word, which is the unit of written and spoken English. The boy is learning to construct sentences after correct models.

As far as possible, the sentences used as models should be taken from the reading lesson. It is true economy to make the utmost use of the reading book, to use it, as far as possible, as the basis of the work in English—so that the composition lesson strengthens the work done in the reading lesson, and *vice versa*.

Written work must be corrected. There is general agreement on this point. But here the agreement ends. There are many opinions about the questions of how correction should be done and how much of it is necessary. In the first place, if we allow a boy to go on repeating an error time after time, we are allowing him to form a habit. What is wrong must be put right. We ought to guard, as carefully as we can, against allowing a boy to make an error at all. Teachers often provide the very conditions of the commission of errors. If we set a junior a very difficult task—if, say, we ask him to write a story or a piece of composition on a set theme, we may be sure that his composition will be full of errors—errors of fact, of grammar, of spelling. We correct them all: that is to say, we cross them out, and perhaps, at an immense sacrifice of valuable time, write in red ink what the boy should have written. Is it possible that anyone believes that this is an adequate precaution against the same errors being made again?

If, at first, the written composition is limited, as has been already suggested, to the construction of sentences built upon basic sentences which can be used by the children, sentences which they borrow freely from their reading books, then errors will be few and can be corrected. They will be simple spelling errors, which can be corrected easily, and the child can be set to rewrite his few sentences without mistakes. In this way may be built, gradually but not necessarily slowly, a foundation of correct habit of writing and spelling.

If, on the other hand, we require on occasion a longer effort from the child, a simple "essay" made up of a number of sentences, some precaution against spelling errors should be taken. The essay will ordinarily develop out of oral work in class, and in the oral lesson the words which are likely to prove difficult to spell will be used. They should be written clearly on the blackboard, and should remain there for reference during the written composition lesson. The correction of the written composition should therefore be limited to the marking of grammatical errors. When mistakes in construction are common to the whole class, or to a great many pupils, lessons should be based on them. The incorrect sentence is written on the blackboard and discussed. It is then rubbed out and rewritten correctly, and exercises, of the type already suggested, are given, until the correct form has been thoroughly learned.

The teacher cannot bear in mind too strongly that, especially at the junior stage, it is well to see that as few mistakes as possible are made. At the stage when habits are being formed, we cannot take too great pains

to see that the early steps are correct. Prevention is better than cure: it is easier, too.

Taught in this way, spelling, sentence-forming, and the writing of composition will not be found dull. But the resourceful teacher will supplement his teaching with devices which ensure that, in the eyes of the boys, the writing of correct English becomes *worth while*. The regular display of good work on an honours board, the preservation of the exhibited work in a special file which is shown to visitors to the school, and similar devices may be used by a good teacher to stimulate boys to great efforts. Once English work is made *worth while* in the eyes of the boys, they will work eagerly. The mastery of spelling, grammatical construction, and other details which used in the past to be learned only through drudgery, becomes simple, once the boys want to master them.

Pronunciation

In what has been said up to the present, the junior pupil, the child up to the age of about eleven years, has been looked upon as one to be educated through the imitation of models. This seems sound educationally. A great deal is said nowadays about stages of development, and though there are very wide differences amongst psychologists and educationists as to whether these exist at all, and, if so, regarding their character and their limits, there can be very little doubt that the child of from three to ten, say, learns his world through imitation. This does not mean that he imitates everything. On the contrary, he selects very carefully what he imitates.

His knowledge of English will be based upon imitation of what he hears and what he reads. Teachers must face the fact that the ordinary pupil in the elementary school does not come from a home which is stocked with carefully chosen and good books, nor is the spoken English heard by this pupil that which we would have him imitate: the words are carelessly chosen, they often do not express meaning adequately, they are pronounced in a slovenly way, and put together ungrammatically. The books the pupil sees and reads enter the home by pure chance, and the majority of them are bought merely to pass away time or to give information.

Ultimately, what the teacher desires—and this applies as much to the senior as to the junior school—is that the pupil shall take the school, and the English of the school-book and the school teacher, as models for imitation, and that he shall reject the English of the home, the playground, and the street. No mere assertion of authority can effect this. The utmost that can be achieved by authority is that the pupil will speak two languages, “school English” at school, and “home English” at home.

Again, no teacher should ever make the fault of trying to undermine the loyalty of the child to his home and his parents, or to his locality. One teacher who objected strongly to the marked provincial speech of her girls, sneered at their “Lancashire accent”, only to be told by the children that they belonged to Lancashire and wanted to “speak Lanca-

shire". The ill-advised attack merely evoked hostility towards the teacher and the language habits she advocated. Sometimes, too, the teacher who criticizes adversely a certain pronunciation or construction will be told, "That is how my father says it". I have heard a teacher on such an occasion retort to the child, "Then your father is wrong". This is distinctly unfair to the child, since he is compelled to choose between his father and his teacher as models. It is likely to be unfortunate for the teacher, since the child resents adverse criticism of his father from another person. We can imagine, too, what will happen at home when the child reports, "Father, my teacher says you don't speak properly". It would have been far more tactful if the teacher had laughed and said to the child, "Very well, you tell your father what I said and what you said, and ask him which of the two he would like you to copy". Fortunately, teachers can generally take for granted that the majority of parents want their children to be better than themselves.

Use of Phonetics.—The question often arises as to whether the teacher should make any use of phonetics in teaching English speech. The use of a phonetic alphabet does not seem practicable in the schools. But nevertheless, the teacher will help himself enormously if he knows something about the structures which are common in the production of the sounds of English speech, and the ways in which they are used. The Cockney child is unable to distinguish between "naow" and "now", but can make the latter sound readily enough if he is shown how to use his tongue and lips. The teacher should not merely know, that is to say, the correct sounds of standard speech, but he should understand every detail of the processes by which they are produced. He will thus be able to employ a phonetic method to help his pupils, though he will not teach them phonetics.

Indeed, children seem to like to learn how to use lips and tongue and teeth in the production of sounds; and when this is the case, the teacher should be glad to enlist this interest on his side. The child who could not distinguish at first between "naow" and "now" soon learns to distinguish between them when he realizes how differently they are produced. Once he distinguishes, the use of "now" is likely to become a habit.

Grammar

A generation ago it was still possible for teachers to speak with conviction of grammar as "the logic of the elementary school", and to believe that the child who received instruction in the subtleties of grammatical distinctions and the complexities of grammatical nomenclature was in some mysterious way trained in "reasoning" and more completely equipped for rational life. Few people would maintain this nowadays, yet nevertheless they feel that the total abandonment of grammar is not wise.

There are to-day, in the schools, some signs of a "back to grammar"

movement. This does not mean at present, and may never mean in the future, that we shall return to the type of grammar teaching which Mr. H. G. Wells so strongly indicted in *Mankind in the Making*. It indicates, rather, that the abandonment of grammar has not brought about all the good results that were prophesied by those who urged this course. When, in the past, it was found that composition received little attention in the schools, and literature practically none at all, reformers claimed that this was because time was devoted to grammar. When it was pointed out that the English work in the schools was formal and stereotyped, lacking in creative character and in originality, the same reformers blamed grammar for exerting a deadening influence upon the English work in the schools.

The teacher will do well to pay a great deal of attention to the reformers. He may even become a disciple, but this will not mean that he ceases to remain a teacher. He will stand apart from those who demand a grammarless curriculum, as well as from those who believe that all human perfection is based on the study of grammar. He will not read into "A Grammarian's Funeral" a theory that grammar was responsible for the high character of the dead man; though he will realize with Browning than any study (*even* grammar, some might say) becomes something worthy when a "high man" gives value to it.

So the teacher will listen to all the wrangling about grammar, and his experience in the classroom will act as the steadying governor or flywheel of the machine. Grammar and spelling do not help originality, but the teacher knows that ignorance of grammar and spelling leads only to originalities which give trouble. He knows, too, that the oftener a child speaks and writes incorrectly, the more certainly is he forming habits of bad English. The whole theory of habit formation makes us realize that the prevention of bad habits and the formation of good ones at an early stage of the child's career is of immense importance. Good habit formation at the early stages is an immense economy of time and labour. We know, too, that it is probably better to form no habits at all than to form bad ones.

Let us realize that a great part of the teaching of English is bound up with the acquirement of good habits of speaking and writing English by the pupil. The main divisions of English studies are—reading, writing, and speaking. In the child's own individual history, speaking comes first, reading as a rule second, and writing third in order. In actual practice, we are compelled to make one of these three studies basic. Which shall it be? The actual conditions of life of the majority of our pupils decide for us that reading is the basic English study. Through reading the pupil will make the acquaintance of good models of English, on which he may base good habits of writing and speech. Consequently, the bulk of early English teaching is directed towards teaching the child to read. Reading is necessarily closely linked to speech: writing stands somewhat apart.

Reading involves the recognition of certain signs for words—certain visual signs, perceived through the medium of the eye. Speech involves

the use of certain organs in certain ways, so that the sound of the word is produced, which may be perceived through the medium of a listener's ear. Writing involves the manipulation of a simple tool—brush, pencil, pen, or stylus—by the hand, so that the visual signs for words appear on slate or paper or tablet. For speech or thought the unit is undoubtedly the sentence, the equivalent of the complete thought. For reading, on the other hand, the unit is the word. For writing, the unit is the letter. The early difficulties we experience in teaching are certainly a consequence of the fact that we are trying to do many things at once. If we could confine all our early English studies to oral work, words and letters need not trouble us at all. We could confine our work to the use of correct sentences. All our work would be limited to the sentence, the unit of thought and of conversation.

We cannot do this. We have at least to add reading to our work. Reading is not based upon the sentence, but on the word. The teacher who reflects on this will find that he comes to regard grammar in the junior school in a new light: it is the necessary link between reading and speech, since it deals with the word in relation to the sentence. Grammar, rightly considered and rightly taught, correlates speech—in which the sentence is a unitary whole—with reading, in which the sentence is an aggregate of words.

Here are details of a way in which this correlation may be achieved: Obtain from the printer a number of tough cards, of about the size of a lady's visiting card, in two clear colours: say pink and yellow. On each pink card write in clear script (using a poster pen and "Indian" or "Artist's Black" ink) a noun. On each yellow card write a verb.

Dogs	bark
Cats	mew
Babies	cry
Boys	shout
Men	work

This set of five nouns and five verbs, ten cards in all, may be given to a child. The teacher puts two cards together, and reads, "Babies work". The child at once laughs or says, "That is silly. Babies cannot work." The teacher agrees, and says, "See if you can find a yellow card which tells me what babies do". The child looks through them all, and soon finds "cry". The two cards are now placed side by side, so that they read, "Babies cry". The child now chooses another pink card, reads the word on it (perhaps "boys"), and then finds a word on a yellow card which makes up a sentence.

The box with its ten cards makes a very interesting game. Enough boxes can be prepared for each member of a small class to have one.¹

¹ In practice, it is well to number the boxes and to number each card on the back, to ensure that the cards are replaced in the boxes to which they belong.

By the time that each pupil has worked through fifteen boxes something will have been learned which can serve as the basis of a series of talks.

It is quite possible now for the children to realize that the word on the pink card is the name of something, the word which means the thing, and that the word on the yellow card tells us what the thing does or may do. We need the two words together before we can say anything.

As a variant of the previous exercises and an application of what has been learned in this discussion, we may pile upon the table, face downwards, a number of the pink cards and a number of the yellow ones. We allow half the children to draw a pink card and the other half a yellow one each. A holder of a pink card now rises and reads out, "Babies". The child who holds a yellow card saying what babies do now calls out the word on his card, "cry". The two come to the front of the class and stand side by side. The game goes on till as many pink and yellow card holders are mated.

A junior teacher of resource will find a great many developments of this simple game. At a later stage the children may be provided with blank pink and yellow slips on which they will write "naming words" and "telling words", and the game of "mating" will be played with words which they have written themselves. The correlation of writing with reading and speech is thus introduced.

There is no reason why, when children have become familiar with the distinction between "naming words" and "telling words", they should not speak of them as "nouns" and "verbs". "Nouns are 'naming words' and verbs are 'telling words'", is a perfectly satisfactory definition at this stage. But there should be no haste to introduce the technical term, just as there should be no undue fear of it. A technical term may be used, for the sake of brevity and clearness, by one who is familiar with its meaning. When the teacher is perfectly certain that no confusion will be caused by the use of a technical term, he may use it with advantage.¹

It is quite possible to add to these two kinds of words a third kind—"describing words". Cards of a third colour might be used, with such words as "little", "big", "large", "small", "cruel", "kind", &c., written on them. These may be used in the same way as other cards were used. Similar games may be played, with the difference that instead of two children we shall now need three to make up our group. Then, too, the teacher may write a list of a dozen "naming words", and equal numbers of "telling words" and "describing words". The children are required to make up sentences, each containing three words, one from each of the columns.

This method of approaching grammar serves, as has already been

¹ Recently, in an examination of children entering a secondary school, the candidates were asked, "What part of speech is this word?" One asked, "Is it direct or indirect speech?" Another said, "It is a plural part of speech." Very little is gained by speaking of "bad teaching" in such cases. What are the faults of the teaching which leads to such results?

said, the purpose of correlating reading with speech. But it serves also, no less because it does it implicitly rather than explicitly, to make clear the function of the word in the sentence.

Can this method be further developed to assist in the correction of habits of speech? It can, if the teacher will remember that the inaccuracies he should correct are not a number of possible inaccuracies, but the real ones which children make every day. These vary so much in different parts of the country and even in different parts of the same town that general advice cannot be given. The teacher must be aware of the inaccuracies he has to correct, through systematic observation of the children in the classes. Nevertheless, one fault is so general, and a method of dealing with it arises so naturally out of exercises of the type we have been discussing, that something may be said about it here.

The fault is that of using the singular noun with the plural verb, and vice versa. If in the list of nouns written on the cards or on the blackboard there appear "a baby" and "babies", and in the verbs "cry" and "cries", we have a means of dealing with the tendency to say "babies cries". Thus, from the very beginning, we may make the grammar teaching a means of dealing with and correcting common errors, and thus an indirect help to the writing and speaking of correct English.

Spelling

The question of spelling follows naturally from this discussion of grammar. Spelling bridges the gap between the letter and the word, and thus correlates reading exercises with writing exercises. The child should be taught to make a letter which approximates in form to the letter used in the reading book or the reading card, so that he may, without great difficulty, copy words directly from the book or card.¹

Our aim in teaching spelling is to train the child to write correctly the words he has met with in the course of his reading. He has to write, that is to say, the words he has seen. Yet, in the spelling lessons of the past, the training has emphasized most of all something that was of little importance, namely, the ability of the child to repeat verbally the letters of a word dictated to him. If we desire that he should be able to do this, we may ask it later, but we must not make this requirement the basis of our method of teaching spelling.

We have to correlate the recognition of the word through the eye with the series of hand movements by means of which the word is written. This very fact immediately suggests a method. The child must look at the word, recognizing it for what it is, and must make the movements of writing it, letter by letter. He may, as a proof of his recognition of the word, say it aloud, and he may also, as he writes the letters or pretends

¹ This point has not received the attention it deserves. There is a great difference between making letters of script shape and writing these letters in a proper manner, as a craftsman would practise lettering. When script letters are properly formed, the development of joins follows naturally, and the present gap between "script" and "cursive" writing disappears.

to write them, name them. It is well that he should name the word and the separate letters, but the recognition and the movements are the really important things which should be emphasized. In the early stages the movements should be large, as if the child were writing the letters a foot high on a board placed at arm's length in front of him.

Somewhat later, the child may be required to write words which are dictated to him by the teacher. They should be familiar words, which have already been met in the reading book. The child should be asked to close his eyes, and to pretend that the word is before him. Then he will make the larger movements, saying the letters softly to himself, and will then write them. As time goes on, the various parts of this complex habit will be performed rapidly and with ease. The teacher will dictate easy sentences in place of single words. What is important is to deal with this whole procedure carefully and in detail in the lower school. If this is done, many of the troubles and difficulties of the upper school will disappear.

A few teachers of the older school deplore the passing of the lesson in spelling. Usually a number of words were written on a blackboard and spelt aloud, simultaneously, by the whole class. Subsequently they were dictated as words or as parts of a connected passage. Some older schoolmasters declare that this method gave better results than are given by the modern neglect of spelling. It is impossible to verify the recollections of the past, but there is evidence which suggests that the spelling of the past was less perfect than it is frequently alleged to have been, but it is nevertheless clear that we cannot adequately deal with a subject by ignoring it. Spelling is still a matter of some importance, and the acquirement of correct spelling habits is a matter for all schools. It has been ignored to some extent in the modern school because our older ways of teaching it took up more time than the importance of the subject warranted.

Attempts to teach spelling in the old way without the old expenditure of time which this method demanded were certain to fail. There seems to be a fair measure of agreement that spelling is, on the whole, less good than it used to be, and modern methods are blamed for the difference. The fault does not lie here altogether. The old method was bad, in more respects than one. The modern methods are faulty, in that they have not broken away from the old sufficiently: they are, it seems to the writer, in all those instances he has been able to observe, no worse than the old, applied with less thoroughness. The result, something less than that achieved in the past, might have been expected.

If the teacher will only realize that spelling is something far more complete and complex than was contemplated in the past, he will have gone far to evolve a method which is economical. All teaching of spelling ought to link up recognition of words, through the eye or the ear, with the reproduction of words, letter by letter, by means of hand movements. The complete spelling act must involve this recognition plus reproduction in a complete whole.

The pupil learns recognition of words through the ear in the oral language lessons, and through the eye in the reading lessons. He learns the art of making letters in the writing lesson. In the spelling lesson he uses *unitedly* what he has learned separately; and spelling, so taught, ceases to be a dull formal exercise, but usefully correlates together writing, reading, and speech in correct written English.

CHAPTER III

Post-primary English

In the elementary school the pupils of Standards V, VI, and VII have generally been looked upon as different from those in the lower standards. The work set them has not merely been harder, but has differed in kind. In the older type of school, these upper standards were those in which, for the first time, some degree of originality was demanded in the work in English.

To-day, the difference between these pupils—the “eleven plus” children—and others tends to be emphasized even more. They are to be segregated in Central or Senior Schools, of the selective or non-selective type, or in “upper tops”. The new plan is largely the result of the belief that the boy enters, at his tenth or eleventh year, upon a new stage of development, lasting till his fifteenth or sixteenth year.

Some idea of what is meant by the conception of a “stage of development” is really of importance to the teacher, since an understanding of the term is essential to any comprehension of the character of the work of the central school. Unless there is some change in the boy or girl at about the age of eleven, there is no sound reason why a definite break should be made with his earlier education. If, on the other hand, there is a change, the whole policy of the new senior school must depend upon the nature of this change. It may be that the central school may be called upon to depart from the tradition of the past in education: it may be that experience in these schools will merely confirm this tradition. But we must realize, at the very start, that the senior schools are the greatest experiment in education which has been made yet in this country—and the teacher of English will be no less an experimenter than his colleagues. He must be open-minded. He must be a keen observer. He must see clearly the ends at which he is aiming, and must criticize rigorously his own success in working towards those ends. He must be prepared to be inflexibly conservative, or unconventional and heretical, as the new school may demand of him.

Two important experiments have been made in education which have definite reference to this period of the boy's development. One is the experiment of Mr. Caldwell Cook in the Perse School, recorded

in *The Play Way*; the other is the working out in the United States under Miss Helen Parkhurst of the Dalton Plan. The suggestion is not made here that either the "Play Way" or the "Dalton Plan" should be blindly followed without any adaptation. But both should be understood. Both throw an extraordinary light upon the nature of the stage of development of the child during the period of life for which the central school caters.

Mr. Cook's experiments revealed very clearly the capacity of children at this stage of development for self-expression, and suggested methods of ensuring that this capacity was used for self-development. The results obtained by these methods were certainly far superior to those which followed "spoon feeding" teaching. Miss Parkhurst's experiments resulted in a practical classroom method of setting children free to work in their own way, at their own rate, at times preferred by them, within the limits of a contract made between them and the teacher.

Even if the teacher of English in the central school decides that he cannot adopt *in toto* either the "Play Way" or the "Dalton Plan", he may still realize the importance of learning through self-activity. He may with advantage remember that English and the appreciation of English literature cannot be taught, in a sense; and that his most important rôle in the classroom is the unobtrusive setting of the stage for the self-activity of the pupils. This realization will have a profound effect on his conception of the method he is to follow.

A Scheme of English Teaching

The teacher of English in the senior school should face the situation in which he finds himself, without bias. He is in general, unlike his less fortunate confrère in the secondary school, free from worry about examinations. He has not to think of preparing his students for the entrance examinations of the universities, or of preparing a foundation for the work of an honours degree course. Let him ask himself, then, what might reasonably be expected, in English, of the pupil leaving the senior school at the age of fifteen or sixteen.

In the first place, we might demand that such a young person should be capable of writing a plain, straightforward business letter, or an interesting personal letter. Next, he should be able to write a straightforward account of some matter that has come under his notice, an event which he has witnessed, and of conveying in writing some indication of his feelings of indignation, joy, or horror.

He should be able to read fluently and with comprehension, and to make verbal or written summaries of what he has read. He should be able to read aloud with fluency, ease, and just expression. He should be capable of appreciation and æsthetic enjoyment of good literature, contemporary and modern. He should know something of the methods of studying literature, and of making use of standard works of reference in connexion with such studies.

These are, broadly speaking, the ends at which the central school

will aim. The pupil, at the end of his course, shall be capable of this diversity of achievement. What are we to expect at the beginning of the course? What are the dimensions of the gap to be bridged? As matters stand at present, a great many of the brighter boys will have been weeded out, on the basis of a competitive qualifying examination in arithmetic and English, with perhaps some geography and history, for the secondary schools. Under some authorities, a further examination of a similar type has sorted out the brightest children for the "selective" central school, leaving the remainder to enter the "non-selective" schools.

At first sight this seems distinctly discouraging, but it is so only because the teacher has been taught to regard the achievements of the "bright" pupils as his highest rewards, and because, in general, the methods to which he is accustomed are those which succeed best with bright boys. But he may be assured of reward if he looks upon his work in the right way. The bulk of the boys with whom he has to deal appear not to be bright, simply because nobody has found the method of appealing to them in ways which secure from them a maximum response. Further, a difficulty has been created by their past lack of success: of what use is it to make efforts when they feel sure in advance that they will be badly beaten? To persist in a hopeless struggle is difficult enough when an end we value highly is in sight, and demands a very high degree of courage. But what we are asking of these boys is that they shall struggle vainly to gain an end which they do not greatly desire.

Here is an actual incident from the classroom. A boy who could not, apparently, write an English sentence or spell any word of five or more letters correctly was directly challenged: "Why don't you want to write good English?"

"I *do* want to," he replied.

"Why?"

"Because, unless I do, I shall not be able to pass the examination."

"What examination?"

"To be a telegraph boy."

"What will come after that?"

"Another examination to be a postman. And I might go on and become an inspector of postmen."

"I see. And now tell me. What exactly do you want to be?"

There was some hesitation. Finally the boy decided upon confidence. "I really want," he said, "to be the driver of an express fire engine. But my mother wants me to be a postman."

Here, then, is an interesting situation. Everything the boy does to improve his English merely helps him to realize his mother's plans for him, and to erect further barriers against the carrying out of his own plans. But it is the kind of situation the teacher of English will constantly encounter. It is often useless to point out to these boys the importance of good English, since many of them live in a world in which good English is of little importance, as far as they can see. It is useless to tell them that

good English will help them in life: they will retort, if they are on a sufficiently friendly footing, that the work they intend to do in life will not call for good English. "I'm going to drive a lorry," one boy told his teacher, "and you do not need English to drive a lorry." It is useless to say that people will not understand those who do not speak good English, for the boy is already understood by his parents and playmates—and, for that matter, by his teacher.

Generally, then, the teacher in the lower forms of the senior school—in the secondary school, too—will say little about the ends of learning good English, but will endeavour to make the work interesting and enjoyable. If English can be discovered by the boy to be a sheer joy, he will do it for its own sake, and he will gain, through working at it, things he would never have striven after for themselves alone.

The basis of all successful attempts to make work enjoyable to children must be a knowledge of the facts about children's development and interests. Theories of education too often come from studies and libraries, and are the results of thinking and reading rather than of observing. The teacher will do well not to base his work upon a belief in such widely repeated half-truths as "All children love stories", and the rest, but constantly to check up what he reads and what he hears with what he sees in the classroom.

Children's Reading

In February, 1929, a report was issued of an investigation into children's reading by two headmasters working in schools at Bridgend and Barry respectively.¹ Further figures were added from Aberystwyth schools. An analysis of the books which senior pupils said they had read and enjoyed shows that with senior boys adventure tales account for nearly one-half of the books mentioned. With senior girls there was not the same preference for adventure, apparently. Fairy tales stood at the head, and next in order (if we exclude "miscellaneous") were "school tales". The teacher who reads these school tales will know very well that they are not stories about work in the classroom, but deal with all kinds of exciting and extravagant adventure. It would take too much space to discuss this inquiry here, and it is far better that it should be read as it is reported by the investigators. What appears to stand out is that children at the stage of development we are considering like to read about people and about action. They like to read of people who are doing the things they would wish to do themselves; and there can be little doubt that, as they read, they imagine themselves in the place of the people about whom they are reading. The children tell us that they do not care for biographies, but this is because in biographies too much stress is laid on the informative

¹ *Books Children Like Best*, by J. Lloyd Jones, Headmaster, Gladstone Road Boys' School, Barry, and E. T. Owen, Headmaster, Penybont Boys' School, Bridgend, with a preface by Dr. George H. Green, University of Wales. Published by the *Welsh Outlook Press*, Newton, Montgomeryshire.

and the didactic element. Many biographers who write for boys have yet to learn that if the boy is interested he will learn, and if he is not interested he will not. It is better to interest a boy in the facts than to print them in heavy type.

Any definite inquiry made amongst children by a sympathetic inquirer will give a number of shocks. Thus a headmistress finds of her senior girls: "They like *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*, but are bored by *The Forsaken Merman*, showing that myths, legends, and phantasies do not appeal, but that the stirring narrative does." *The Pied Piper* incites children to read, provided the teacher allows them to read, and does not interrupt with explanations and questions. They read impatiently, moved by the desire to know what happens next, until they reach the end.

Anyone who suggests that books should be read in this way, with as few interruptions as possible—with none at all, for preference—is always told that children should understand what they read. The obvious retort is that the insistence on understanding very often prevents children from reading. It may be true that children will sometimes read and recite with pleasure something which they do not understand, like the little girl who believed that the mention in the hymn of the mother and the "child she bare" was a reference to a "baby bear". The teacher will realize that since his principal aim is to get children to read, to read more and still more, his technique for making them understand what they read *must be something which does not diminish their joy in reading*. This technique can be developed on the basis of a very simple fact in the natural history of the child.

That fact is this. Children enjoy talking about what they have read, almost as much as they enjoy reading, as a general rule. This talking becomes discussion. In the course of discussion a boy will ask: "What was a guilder worth?" The teacher replies to the question, and then another boy says, "How much does that make the reward offered to the piper?" And because the boys want to know, they will work at the answer. Surely this is more fruitful than the ordinary method of delaying the reading whilst a sum is worked on the board, and a class of children, who ought to be paying attention to the figures, are occupying their minds with speculations as to what will happen next in the story. When the reading is resumed, something has been lost—some enthusiasm, some excitement has been quenched by the boredom. All educational investigation goes to prove that information can be most effectively given *when it is wanted*. The middle of a story is not the place where it is generally wanted.

The statement that children do not care for myths, legends, and phantasies is too sweeping. What is true is that the usual methods of telling these do not greatly appeal. *The Forsaken Merman* has little attraction for children because children cannot easily put themselves in the place of the merman. They cannot easily share his feelings. But they can put themselves in the place of William Tell. They can, in

measure, put themselves in the place of Pygmalion, the craftsman who made a statue so beautiful, giving it all but life, that he wished it might live and be his companion. The great difficulty in interesting children in the legends of Greece and Rome, in Celtic myths, and the wonderful stories of the Arthurian cycle is that the stories are seldom told in such ways that the heroes and heroines appear to be living men and women.

The teacher in the senior school who has to choose school reading books might do worse than hand out specimen copies to the boys for comment. He will often find that the series of books—which have everything to recommend them in the way of paper, typography, artistic and literary quality, fail in one respect—they do not interest children. They will be read, not for the pleasure of reading, but merely as part of school lessons.

Away from school, the children will read something else. They will read books which have neither artistic nor literary quality, which are poorly printed on cheap paper, but which happen to interest children. It is unfortunate that the law of libel does not permit a writer to be specific at this point, but compels a certain vagueness. But the characters are alive. They do the very things that the children believe they would enjoy doing, and their exploits are told in ways which make it possible for children to imagine themselves taking part in them.

The teacher should make a point of studying these books. He will find a great deal to deplore. But before he blames, there is something he must consider. He should find out whether children are not contented with the bad because they do not know of the better. Let him seriously consider whether, in some respects, the “bloods” and “horribles” are not better than the bulk of school readers. He will be forced to the conclusion, we believe, that if their writers know nothing or little of literature, they know a great deal about boys and girls.

One teacher, who was convinced on this point, introduced, to a class of boys who frankly admitted that they read nothing but bloods, Mark Twain's *Tom Sawyer*. He read the single episode dealing with the white-washing of the fence by Tom, and then laid the book down. There were demands for more, and more was promised. Within a few days all the copies in the local libraries had been borrowed, and some boys had acquired second-hand copies or cheap editions. At the end the book was discussed. One boy, regarded as “hopeless” by most of the teachers who had handled him, said that the end of the book had disappointed him—“At the end it was just like an ordinary ‘dreadful’”. It was a fine book at the beginning, but it fizzled out.” Literary criticism had begun!

The boys wanted to know, next, if there were any more books by Mark Twain in the school. There were none. They were told, however, to try the public libraries, and they did. They did not enjoy the whole of Mark Twain, but they appreciated a great deal. They had learned, from this one experiment, that “real books” could be more interesting

than those they were in the habit of buying. They had begun to read critically. They had begun to use the public library. All this was achieved in the course of a few weeks.

They asked next, what other books they might read. The teacher suggested that Shakespeare was worth reading, but perhaps rather too difficult. They wanted to try *Macbeth* was chosen for the experiment. In at least five cases out of ten, teachers insist on introducing a play of Shakespeare by a talk, in which they give the outline of the story, so that "the children shall understand what they read"; the assumption being that Shakespeare is incapable of speaking for himself! And thus the teacher robs the children of the main incentive they have for reading the play.

What was done was to give boys parts to take, and to begin the reading at once. At the end of a scene, when a halt was made, there was a cross-fire of questions. "There are notes at the end," said the teacher. "If the thing is explained in the book, there is no need to ask me." The boys began to turn up the notes, but there were still a good many things to ask. The reading went on from day to day, till the play was finished. At the end one boy said, "That was a jolly fine murder story". We cannot say how an Oxford or Cambridge examiner would have dealt with such a comment, but it was an interesting one. Here was a boy, perfectly familiar with murder stories, rating Shakespeare's effort highly, not because he has been told that Shakespeare was England's greatest writer, but because he appreciated his work. The comment was sincere. This is something that cannot be said for the laudations, generally mere paraphrases of the criticisms given in the introduction to school editions, which regularly appear as answers to examination questions.

The most certain sign of real appreciation was the unanimous request that the next book studied should be another Shakespeare play. Five in all were read in the school year. Meanwhile boys were borrowing books from the public libraries and talking to their teacher about them when they had opportunities. Sometimes he had not read the books they had discovered for themselves, but read them on their recommendation. This gave opportunities of comparing notes with the boys about the strength and weakness of the book.

The interest in literature did not stop at reading. The discovery that writing could be good or bad led to a good deal of self-criticism. It was not always necessary to tell a boy that his writing was poor, since he was beginning to discover the fact for himself. This was important in itself. The boy was, in a sense, humbled by the discovery, but he had no doubt about its justice. The writing was wrong, not because his teacher had said so, but really and objectively and incontrovertibly wrong. The boy felt a certain pride that he was a good enough judge of writing to know it. One or two boys asked if they might write the story out roughly, to get it right, before they wrote it finally in the book which was to be examined by the teacher. All this was done willingly and earnestly. The

boys were putting a tremendous amount of effort into the task of improvement.

It would be possible to go on at great length, and to speak of the way in which this attitude towards books and reading penetrated the attitudes towards other departments of school life and work. But similar experiments may be made by any teacher. The whole point is that success in English work, real success that goes far beyond passing examinations, depends entirely upon enlisting the interest of the children. And this, in turn, depends in knowing what their interests are. This knowledge will not come of reading books on educational theory, but of observing carefully what interests the children; watching their play, reading the books they read, and developing theories out of children rather than children out of theories.

The teacher who encourages reading and is successful in getting boys to make use of the public libraries will generally discover that he has a friend and ally in the local librarian. The modern librarian is often enough a man who takes a real pride in his profession, and is anxious to make his library of service to the community. In more than one provincial town a comfortable room is set aside for the use of school children, with tables and chairs, in which boys and girls have free access to the shelves, and where they may sit and read or write. Such a room is a great asset, not only to the library, but also to the schools of the town. It makes possible the doing of homework. We have to realize that many of our children live in small homes, and that the only room in which they are able to work in the evenings is the room in which all the family meets. Adults are talking, a loud speaker is working, younger children are playing. Quiet reading is all but impossible to anyone not trained to almost inhuman concentration. Calm thought is out of the question.

The room in the library helps to solve this very difficult problem of the child who is handicapped in his home. Not merely does he do homework under ideal conditions, but he learns to make use of books of reference, to seek out information for himself. He learns where information is to be obtained. He learns to read lengthy articles in encyclopædias, and to abstract from them just the facts he wants. There is no need to enlarge here on the value of the training a boy receives in this way, nor to demonstrate to teachers that the most valuable thing a boy can learn, whilst at school, is how to make himself independent of teachers. Mr. H. G. Wells has complained that education is still carried on as if printed books did not exist. It is undoubtedly true that large numbers of boys leave our schools, primary, central, and secondary, without the least idea of how to obtain important information from printed sources.

The School Library

Some sort of library is a valuable adjunct in the school itself to the work of the teacher of English. But the development of a school library ought not to interfere in any way with the proper use of the public

library. Whatever may be done in the schools, the classroom and school libraries can never hope to compete with the public library, nor is it desirable that they should.

What kind of library ought we to develop in the classroom? The answer to this depends upon what we want of the library, and every teacher will reply to the question in his own way. Do we wish pupils to take books home and keep them there for a week, or do we merely wish boys and girls to consult the books whilst they are in school, very much in the way that undergraduates would do in their college library? A dictionary and an atlas, both much more full and detailed than those in class use, should find a place. There should be portfolios of famous pictures, a dictionary of biography, a dictionary of English literature, a general encyclopædia, some volumes of standard poetry, and one or two good anthologies. These, of course, for a reference rather than a lending library. At first sight the expenditure may seem very great, but the way is generally discoverable when the will exists, and schools which have succeeded in purchasing pianos without the help of public money—and there are many such—will remind pessimistic teachers that, despite the “economy” of public authorities, very much can be done. After all, the need of cheap reference books has been largely met by the proprietors of the “Everyman Library”.

It is really inspiring and encouraging to see, in a school situated in a slum area, attended by children who come to school ragged and often barefooted, the pupils quietly leaving their places during their English lessons to seek in the books on the shelves the information they want. Sometimes they merely consult the books at the shelves, sometimes they take them to their desks for the purpose of making notes. The result is seen in well-constructed stories, whose historical and geographical backgrounds have been worked out from reference books; in essays whose factual material has been similarly gathered; and in the speeches delivered in the class debating society.

Self-expression

What has been talked about up to the present is the important matter of background. Good English eventually means satisfactory expression in the mother tongue, and this again implies expression of something, and surroundings which encourage and inspire expression. With the surroundings the teacher has everything to do, even if with the “something” existing in the pupil he may appear to have nothing to do directly. But the teacher, observing his pupils closely, will discover that, in some way or other, the pupil is expressing something. It may be in play or mischief, in excited conversation at inappropriate moments, in day-dreaming, or in other activities. It is the place of the English teacher to make expression in English interesting, worthy, and enviable, and so to make the writing of English a substitute for or a supplement of these other forms of expression which the pupil is already using.

The first necessity, then, is that the teacher shall look at the matter in this broad and catholic way. He is something more than an instructor in parsing and analysis, grammar, and the writing of formal composition. The end is far greater than the means, and a proper understanding of the means will come only to those who are aware of the ends. Parsing and analysis are merely, in certain cases, means to the mastery of English and so to adequate expression. Analysis and grammar may be means to the full appreciation of Shakespeare, though many teachers and examiners have forgotten this, and appear to regard grammatical exercises as an end in themselves.

We should realize that adequate expression is a condition of healthy living, and that consequently a command of English is something more than the mere acquirement of academic learning. The teacher of English who does his work whole-heartedly makes possible fuller life for his pupils by opening up to them wider channels of expression. And when he helps them to the appreciation and enjoyment of literature he enables them to enter into the lives of the great and good, the men and women who have lived fully and well. Only through literature may the children of to-day enter into the full enjoyment of their rightful heritage, communion with the good and great of the English race.

CHAPTER IV

The Writing of English

“Write as you speak” is advice that is still frequently given. Unfortunately, few people speak as they ought to write. Consequently, one of the things which the teacher of English has to do is to select models, and devise ways of so using them that pupils benefit by their study.

These models, more especially at the early stage of instruction in the post-primary school, should be chosen for their simplicity and directness. The words used in them should be common, simple words, and the construction of the sentences should be simple too. The following is an example:

I held the vellum again to the fire, after increasing the heat, but nothing appeared. I now thought it possible that the coating of dirt might have something to do with the failure; so I carefully rinsed the parchment by pouring warm water over it, and, having done this, I placed it in a tin pan, with the skull downward, and put the pan upon a furnace of lighted charcoal. In a few minutes, the pan having become thoroughly heated, I removed the slip, and, to my inexpressible joy, found it spotted, in several places, with what appeared to be figures arranged in lines. Again I placed it in the pan, and suffered it to remain another minute. Upon taking it off, the whole was just as you see it now.¹

This simple prose might serve as a model for the description of a number of easy operations. The removal of a foreign stamp from an

¹ From *The Gold-Bug*, by Edgar Allan Poe.

envelope to which it was firmly attached, the mending of a broken cup with china cement, replacing the valve tubing of a cycle tyre—these and a number of other simple operations might be described much in the same way as Poe has described Legrand's attempt to make visible the secret writing on the vellum. The passage should be read through, once, by the teacher; clearly and slowly.

Questions follow. These have been framed to point out to the pupils, more emphatically than could be done by means of statements, the virtues of the passage. What is described in the passage? Probably a number of statements will have to be taken from boys before one is given which exactly describes what is being done. What was done in the first place? The vellum was held to a fire which had been made hotter than it was before. And next? The various steps may be summarized by a word or two with reference to each, written on the blackboard. At the end the class will begin to appreciate the amount of detail contained in the paragraph, and to realize, however imperfectly, the skill required to state so many facts in so brief a statement. This, of course, is a point we wish them to realize—that expression in English calls for skill, which can be gained only through practice.

Probably the best plan to follow here is to ask the boys to write the paragraph for themselves. The notes on the blackboard will remind them of what has to be dealt with. The majority of them will find that they cannot mention the whole of the various steps of the complete process without using many more words than Poe has employed. Their own partial failure will emphasize once more the skill of the author.

The boys should have the original passage in their books, as near as possible to their own reproduction of it. This will necessitate, as a rule, following the original exercise by dictation. The teacher should read one or two pupils' efforts, and ask for criticism. Little more should be expected at this stage than that one is less clear than the other—that one is more straightforward than the other—that one "reads better".

Other passages of the same type are the following:

As long as I was in danger I scarcely felt the wound I had received; but when the chase was over I began to suffer from it. I had lost my hat in my flight, and the sun scorched my bare head. I felt faint and giddy; but fearful of falling to the ground beyond the reach of assistance, I staggered on as well as I could, and at last gained the level of the valley and then down I sank; and I knew nothing more till I found myself lying upon these mats, and you stooping over me with the calabash of water.¹

When I had almost got back to railhead I happened to notice a huge serpent stretched out on the grass, warming himself, his skin of old gold and bright green sparkling brilliantly in the sunshine. He appeared to take little notice of me as I cautiously approached, and was probably drowsy and sated with a heavy meal. I shot him through the head as he lay, and the muscular contortions after death throughout his long body gave me a very vivid idea of the tremendous squeezing power possessed by these reptiles. Skinning him was an easy process, but unfortunately his beautiful colouring soon disappeared, the old gold turning to white and the bright green to lustreless black.²

¹ From *Typee*, by Herman Melville.

² From *The Man-Eater: of Tsavo*, by Lt.-Col. J. H. Patterson.

I was fishing for salmon in the river Carron in Ross-shire. One rose to the fly, and I struck at it with more vigour than an old and infirm rod could bear, with the result that it broke clean off at the top of the butt. The fish was still hooked, but being unable to use the reel I had little hope of landing it. Fortunately there was a boy beside me to whom I handed the broken butt. Taking the other part of the rod in my left and the line in my right hand, and releasing from the reel a good many yards to meet possible rushes on the part of my captive, I succeeded by careful management and after a considerable time in landing an 8-lb. fish.¹

There is no need to multiply instances, since the teacher may find passages suitable for such exercises in every good book he reads. They have not been chosen for beauty or elegance, though every piece of straightforward narrative, well constructed, made of rightly chosen words fashioned into sentences of clear meaning, has beauty. Elegance does not come of overloading with adjectives, or of using unusual words unnecessarily, as children readily think.

Simplicity and clearness cannot be too strongly encouraged at all stages of the English course. The teacher must do everything in his power to lead children to admire these qualities: this does not mean that he is to *tell* the children that they are admirable. His pupils will agree with him if he does, and will faithfully say or write on occasion that nothing can be better than simplicity and clearness in the writing of English; but these assertions will not in the least affect what they write. They will remain in the state of the pupil who wrote: "Never use a preposition to end a sentence with."

The teacher should keep his own book of extracts. He will find from time to time in the better newspapers articles whose paragraphs will serve his purpose well, and he should cut them out and preserve them, with perhaps a comment or two on the reason he has for believing that they are worth keeping. One perhaps is kept for its power of evoking a clear picture of the scene it describes: another because it so surely portrays swift action: another because it deals with something in which boys are interested, so that from time to time they are attempting to write or say something which is here better said. He might, too, tell his boys something about his search for models, something about the points he bears in mind when seeking them, and invite co-operation. Before he accepts a cutting for his book from a pupil, he will say: "What made you choose this?"

At least one lesson a week, for the first year, should be given to the work here indicated. In some classes, it may be possible to work with more difficult models than can possibly be the case in others. In many senior and secondary schools the number of pupils in the first year is so great that the first form is divided into two, three, or even four sections; and these are generally so arranged that the best children are in one division and the worst in another. In the "A" division, it may be possible to proceed very rapidly, whilst in the "C" or "D" groups a good deal of repetition will be necessary.

¹ From *Memories Grave and Gay*, by Dr. John Kerr.

As a general guiding principle, it may be said that extracts which deal with action—with a complete episode of a complete action—prove more simple than do others dealing with pure description or with reflection. But this must not be taken to mean that pupils in the brighter divisions do not need practice in writing accounts of action, as well as description and reflection. It frequently happens that pupils who are able to write ornate accounts of the flowering of primroses or the setting of the sun are completely at a loss when they are asked to describe some simple activity which they are quite capable of performing creditably: ironing a frock, picking up a “ladder” in a silk stocking, making a pudding, constructing a box, or soldering a hole in a kettle.

Informal Grammar

The question of formal grammar must be discussed in a later section. Here we can speak only of the informal grammar which naturally arises in connexion with these composition exercises. In the first extract given, the opening sentence reads: “I held the vellum again to the fire, after increasing the heat, but nothing happened.” It is clear that three thoughts have fused into one:

- (a) I increased the heat of the fire.
I held the vellum again to the fire.
Nothing happened.

As these stand they are apparently of equal importance, and the order in which they have been placed merely indicates the order in which the events occurred.

The analysis here carried out is just as valuable, as analysis, as another performed in connexion with a piece chosen merely to be analysed. It is far more valuable in another way, because we may here show the real service a knowledge of analysis can do us when we are endeavouring to understand more fully a piece of prose whose general excellence we have admitted. We are here performing a task which is very similar to that which a boy performs of his own accord, when he takes a machine to pieces *to find out how it works*, and not merely to set himself an intricate puzzle whose solution is of no benefit to him.

Having taken the sentence to pieces (analysis) we might try the effect of putting the pieces together again (synthesis); but differently. For example:

- (b) Nothing happened, when I held the vellum again to the fire, after increasing the heat.

or:

- (c) I increased the heat of the fire, but nothing happened when I held the vellum again to it.

Synthesis has given us two sentences, in addition to the original, which are made up of the same three elements. What are the differences? Surely the differences in the three lie in that in each of them one of the

three thoughts has been considered to be of greater importance than the others. In the original "I increased the heat of the fire" is used merely to indicate when "I held the vellum again to the fire"; the latter is a principal and the former a subordinate clause. In (c) "I increased the heat of the fire" is a principal clause, whilst "I held the vellum again to the fire" has become a mere subordinate clause indicating when "nothing happened".

To prevent confusion, the original with (b) and (c) may be written on the blackboard, and the three different elements which enter into them all may be distinguished by using coloured chalks. Say, for example, that "Nothing happened" is written in red: "I held the vellum again to the fire", in blue: and "I increased the heat of the fire" in yellow. The conjunctions, which form no part of any of these sentences, are written in white. Now, in each case, underline the subordinate clauses with green. The three synthesized sentences are now far more easily compared.

There will probably be no difficulty in deciding that "I held the vellum again to the fire" and "Nothing happened" are of greater importance than "I increased the heat of the fire"; and that we are right in making the last subordinate. It is less easy to decide that either of the first two is more important than the other. It is easy, however, to see that one deals with an event which is the result of the event with which the first deals, and that, *unless there is some very special reason for acting otherwise*, the account of the consequence should follow the account of the cause. Further, any pupil who realizes that this paragraph is part of a story will be able to predict that, though at this point nothing happens, later on the hero will succeed. We therefore stress his failure at this point in order to make his success seem greater when it comes. And hence we do not say "nothing happened" in a casual manner, as if it were of no importance, but we put it just where it is more emphasized. This point becomes clear if we read (b), and then the original.

Thus we find that the discussion of a passage, chosen originally for its simplicity, its clearness and directness, leads us directly to grammar and again to the consideration of points of technique and construction. It may be that at first numbers of pupils will not be able to proceed so far. No matter. It is important that the teacher of English should realize that the apparently simple extracts chosen as models are capable of being used with advanced pupils, and that some of the problems which they raise are by no means simple. Further—and the point is of real importance—none of these problems is raised merely to tax ingenuity: they arise directly out of the attempt to appraise the model rightly, and to understand its excellence.

Introduction to Original Composition

It must be borne in mind, all the time that models are being used, that they are means to an end—the writing of original composition. A

step that may be taken in this direction is the following: The teacher has in his notebook a paragraph dealing with an episode (the extract on page 140, for example). He suggests to the class that they should write a paragraph of about a hundred words, dealing with the shooting of a snake by a man who found it asleep. When the exercise is completed, the model is written down for comparison.

These exercises lead to a number of possible immediate and practical results. The editor of a school magazine is able to fill his pages many times over, as a rule, with ornate and flowery articles on vague and general topics. But he is generally at a loss for brief interest. A glance through the pages of most school magazines will serve to show how badly such paragraphs are written, as a rule. They are stereotyped. They are verbose. The editor has many correspondents who can write paragraphs which commence: "An event of unusual interest occurred in the school at the beginning of the term . . .", but very few who are willing to write: "Mr. Irvine returned from his trip round the world in April, and was welcomed back by the staff and pupils; most of all by the members of his old form." The verbose and stereotyped work is not more original than the plain, simple, almost severe work—it is merely imitated from worse models!

Another immediate and practical result is the making of a brief, unpretentious speech. The speeches a pupil is likely to be required to make may be regarded as paragraphs, in which he states that he is speaking for his form, that he is expressing gratitude (or regret, as the case may be), and giving briefly his reasons for doing so. That is all. The study of models which has been suggested is an excellent preparation.

The writing of simple stories is an exercise which may follow with advantage the construction of paragraphs on the lines of suitable models. The story introduces something additional to grammatical construction. It introduces the element of dramatic construction. The stories chosen in the first instance for class purposes should be short and simple. But they should have a very definite point. They should be chosen, that is to say, so that they are not too difficult for pupils just beginning the senior course, but they should nevertheless serve to illustrate all that we are trying to teach. This means that a great many excellent stories, complying with one only of these conditions, will have to be set aside.

Some parts of India are so hot all the year round that the natives have never seen or heard of ice.

A gentleman who had lived in India returned to England, bringing an Indian servant with him. One winter morning, the servant came into the house, bringing with him a piece of ice.

"Look, sir," he said. "I found this piece of glass in the fountain."

The gentleman smiled.

"It looks very wet," said he. "You had better put it in front of the kitchen fire."

After a few minutes the Indian came back, looking very worried.

"That is very strange glass, sir," said he. "The more I dry it, the wetter it gets."

For the enjoyment of any story, as a rule, certain information is necessary. If we are told at the beginning that a story is about a Scotchman and a Jew, we expect to hear something about two very keen men endeavouring to outreach one another in a matter of business. If the story is about an Irishman, we expect its point to lie in a witty answer or a comic situation. These are conventions so generally accepted that it is unnecessary to preface the story with information about the alleged characteristics of Scotchmen, Jews, or Irishmen.

The whole point of the story just told depends upon the fact that the Indian servant had never seen ice. It will be completely lost upon a hearer or reader who knows nothing of the climatic conditions of a great part of India. We tell him just enough to enable him to appreciate the point of the story—*and no more*. This is the purpose of the introduction. Children who have been studying the geography of India could say a great deal more than this about the geography and meteorology of India; but, when writing this story, *they must not*. When an introduction is necessary, it must be as brief as possible.

(1) When spectacles were first invented, they were sometimes advertised as "Helps to Read".

A countryman entered a shop and asked to be fitted with some. Pair after pair was tried on, but in vain. The customer was quite unable to read the pages of the book which was placed before him.

At last the dealer said: "Can you read at all without glasses?"

"No," said the man. "If I could read, do you think that I should buy glasses to make me read?"

(2) Guy, the founder of Guy's hospital, was a miser.

One evening, when he was sitting in darkness beside a very tiny fire, the old woman who kept house for him came in to say that a stranger was asking to see him.

Guy lighted a candle.

"I wanted to see you," said the stranger. "I am very careful with my money, and never waste any. But my friends have told me that you are even more careful than I am, and I have come to you to talk the matter over."

"If we are going to talk," said Guy, "we shall not need the light," and he blew out the candle.

The teacher will find it possible to add very considerably to his store of composition material if he collects a number of stories similar to those given above. He need have no fear of introducing "chestnuts", for many of the stories he has known for many years are still unknown to his pupils and will be enjoyed by them. At this point of the composition course, it will be well to confine the story material to stories which have a definite introduction and a marked climax. Humorous stories will best serve the purpose.

It will be easy, in the course of class discussion, to make clear to the class that the stories can be regarded as being made up of three parts, viz.:

- (a) An *Introduction*, which gives the information enabling a reader or hearer to understand the point of the story immediately he reaches it.

- (b) A *Narration* (or discourse), which presents a series of events, leading up to
- (c) A *Climax*, which can for the present be regarded as the point at which the reader laughs.

Literary Appreciation

It will be well, at this point, to review what has been achieved. The study of the model paragraph has led pupils to realize that statements may be made well, less well, or badly; and thus has enabled them to appreciate clear and direct statement, and economy of words. The study of a number of stories which they are able to understand and laugh at has been used to enable them to appreciate "literary form"; to realize, that is to say, that a story, to be well written or well told, must be constructed.

If so much can be achieved by simple means—and there is no doubt that it can—no apology is needed for departing, in the plan here laid down, from the course that many writers on the teaching of English advise. No attempt has been made to introduce to the children the work of great authors in any systematic way, and this neglect has been deliberate. The enjoyment of good literature is a reward which can be gained only at the end of a long training. It matters not at all whether the training be directed or not, provided it be given. Some sort of natural endowment may be necessary, so that it may be some of our pupils will never be able to enjoy good literature fully, just as the colour-blind and the tone-deaf will never fully enjoy colour and music, and as others will never be able to appreciate the subtleties of flavour that delight the gourmet.

It is, perhaps, not wholly satisfactory to endeavour to establish parallels between material things such as tobaccos, liqueurs, wines, and foods, and such things as music and literature. But everybody knows that the tasters of wines and teas, the samplers of cigars, and the men who are in charge of the preparation of delicate foods, are men whose natural discrimination has been trained, and nobody doubts that musical appreciation comes only to those who have undergone a long and careful training. We do not begin the training of the musician with the masterpieces of Scarlatti, Beethoven, Brahms, and Bach, but with simple music, good of its kind, from which the pupil learns the elements of form and composition. Gradually he proceeds to the appreciation of more and more difficult work, finding in it something which he could never have found had he not been prepared. This is precisely parallel to the development of the expert taster of wines and of teas, who is able to detect difference of flavour in two samples which to ordinary persons taste alike.

We shall not in any way hamper the development of pupils by restricting their literary diet to plain fare. What we have to fear is that they may learn to admire the meretricious and the shoddy. The boy who is going to rise to high levels of architectural appreciation will be helped, and not hindered, if he should learn to love the old cottages of

the Sussex villages, but his development will suffer a setback if he should be taught to admire the Albert Memorial or the Imperial Hotel. In exactly the same way, people with possibilities of literary appreciation will be helped by contact with simple, direct English; but considerably harmed should they acquire a liking for anything resembling the work of the late Miss Marie Corelli.

There is something wrong in asking children to appreciate literature before they have acquired the developed capacity necessary for such appreciation. Either it will bore them, or they will not know its goodness even if they like it. A man may like Chambertin, just as he likes the grocer's Burgundy, without being able to distinguish between the two; but we must not therefore class him with the man who really appreciates the excellence of the former. And people who introduce really good literature to children often believe that children appreciate it when the fact is that they like it no more and no less than poor work. That is to say, they do not appreciate it as literature, but because it has some accidental quality which commends it. Thus, in a class which had learned at the same time *Wynken, Blinken, and Nod* and also Walter de la Mare's *Nod the Shepherd*, both poems were undoubtedly enjoyed; yet anyone who argued from this that a real appreciation of literature was shown would have been wrong, because *Wynken, Blinken, and Nod* was much preferred.

The teacher who insists on introducing the work of great writers, which demands developed capacity for its proper appreciation, at too early a stage, will find himself compelled to tasks which would seem strange enough, had not custom made us familiar with them. If a man tells us that he does not appreciate a delicious soup, we do not ask him to analyse it chemically, in the belief that a knowledge of its chemical composition will change his attitude towards it. We do not tell him that it is good for him, and expect that, as he eats it for his health's sake, he will appreciate its flavour. Yet we do exactly this with literature which we feel is not fully appreciated. We compel pupils to turn stately verse into commonplace prose, believing that the glory which was hidden in the beauty of the one will be revealed in the sordidness of the other. We recommend grammatical analysis, as if one should attempt to appreciate St. Paul's Cathedral by knocking it down and playing with the stones!

The ultimate aim of literary and grammatical exercises is to enable the pupil to do without them. He learns to paraphrase so that in the end he may dispense with paraphrasing, and to analyse so that he may enjoy without analysis. He will paraphrase at the early stage of his English course, and sometimes at the later stages as well, but merely so that he may read Shakespeare, Tomlinson, Conrad, Kipling, and other great writers and enjoy them fully and immediately. He will analyse, not that he may subject great work to analysis, but so that he will immediately appreciate its structure with enjoyment without the need of dissecting it.

Hence, at this early stage of English in the senior school, we shall find our material for study in simple narrative and homely stories. The nar-

rative shall be informing and interesting, and the stories shall be humorous, because these qualities will compel the pupils' attention. These may be paraphrased and parsed and analysed, because at this stage the pupils are beginning to learn a craft, so that later they will do the thing that is "just right", and will admire the work of the men who do it better.

Another caution is necessary regarding the choice of literary material for study and appreciation. The market is flooded with books which are described as "children's books" or "boys' books" or "girls' books": some justly. The prices of these books are sufficient assurance that they are not bought by the children themselves, but by people who buy them as gifts. They are books, that is to say, that adults would like children to like. They are sometimes about very abnormal children, the products of an unusual and not desirable environment, living lives far removed from those of the ordinary healthy boy of the senior or secondary school. The use of boys' and girls' books in school should be carefully watched. Teachers, like other people, can be affected by prejudice; and it is difficult not to believe that children like what we wish them to like. Prejudice not merely blinds us to facts, but it also prevents us from making proper investigations into the facts. Teachers, after reading a favourite passage of their own to children, ask enthusiastically, "Wasn't that splendid?" and believe that the chorus of "Yes" indicates true appreciation: it may do so, but it cannot be relied upon. Often enough it indicates merely a passing excitement and a wish to please the teacher.

We must remember, lest we deceive ourselves in the present and prepare disillusion in the future, that the child is far more interested in the matter of the story than in the form. Of the things we want him later to appreciate he is hardly aware. Generally, he prefers stories that deal with actions. And here he exhibits tastes which he shares in common with primitive peoples. In both cases the story is a chronicle of events which have happened to the narrator or to persons known to him, directly or indirectly; or it is a chronicle of experiences which he has imagined to happen. In the case of the child and the simple savage, the events are related in strict sequence, and the story comes to an end as the events come to an end.

If we wish to realize the degree of sophistication we demand from children when we try to get them to appreciate some masterpiece of modern story-telling, it is necessary only to get an uneducated man to relate a series of episodes, or to listen to an uneducated woman retailing some occurrence to another. In the first case the man says that first this thing happened, then that, then another, and then still another thing. "I came along the road, and I saw him standing there. So I said to him, 'What are you doing here at this time of day?' And he said, 'I've just had a quarrel with Mr. Egerton, and I've left him for good.' . . ." And so on. In the second case, we have a long record of fragments of conversation. "She said to me, 'I haven't seen you for a long time'. 'No,' said I, 'I've had my time too fully taken up to be out and about much.' So she

said to me, 'Perhaps I shall see a little more of you now.' Exactly the same sort of thing may be seen in the stories told by the Australian aborigines, and recorded by Spenser and Gillen in their works dealing with the life of the tribes. Things are told as they happened, or are alleged to have happened, or as they are remembered. In a sense these stories begin nowhere and they end nowhere.

The boy of ten years of age or so does not object at all to stories of this type. I have before me a boy's composition, an original effort, which is exactly like it. He was asked by his teacher to write an essay dealing with his best friend. He begins: "I have been told to write a composition about my best friend. My best friend is Fred Williams, so I will write about him." He does nothing of the kind. He goes on: "The other afternoon he asked me to come round to his house." Then follows a chronicle of happenings, of the type, "First we did this. Then we did that. Next we did something else." Every teacher of young boys will recognize it.

The modern writer of stories does nothing of this sort. Mr. W. W. Jacobs, it is true, writes stories in which he artfully suggests a story of this type; excusing the form by putting the tale in the mouth of the night watchman. But any sort of examination of the tale will show the skilled craftsmanship which has gone, in the first instance, to its construction; and in the second place, to disguising the skill and suggesting that the story is the plain, straightforward narrative of an uneducated man.

This somewhat long discussion is not a purposeless digression. It is the attempt to make clear beyond confusion that when we introduce the boy to *The Jungle Book* we are not introducing the boy to Kipling. The eleven-year-old boy finds one thing in the book and the man with developed literary appreciation another. The eleven-year-old boy satisfies an eleven-year-old appetite with *The Jungle Book*. At twenty he does not wish to reopen the book. He remembers, more or less clearly, exactly what it satisfied, and knows that this appetite no longer exists in him. But the man with developed literary taste turns to a Kipling volume again and again, experiencing again an old delight, or finding something beyond what he had before discovered. The premature use of classics in the schools, it is to be feared, often prevents them from being read later, when they might be appreciated.

We have already led the boy a considerable distance when we have enabled him to see that a story should not be a mere narrative of a sequence of events, but that it should have structure and form. We have gone a long way, too, when we have made him see that the story is not something that can begin anywhere and end anywhere; but that it should have an end (or climax) and that each part of the narrative leads to this and is necessary to it. We may illustrate the point to the pupil by comparing the story to the Nelson column. The statue of Nelson resembles the climax and the plinth the introduction: between the two are interposed a number of stones, each one necessary to the stone superposed upon it

and to the column as a whole. And all of them together are necessary to keep the statue in its commanding position.

What has been learned about form prepares the pupil for two further forms of English activity; one written, and the other oral. The former is what is generally, in school, spoken of as the essay: the second is the debating speech.

The Essay

The object of the essay is to narrate a number of events which can be presented under a single heading, or a series of facts which can be grouped together as a single topic. The first task is the collection of material. The second is its arrangement. The third is the writing.

It is largely by means of the "essay" that English is brought closely into touch with other subjects of instruction. The subject-matter of lessons in chemistry, physics, biology, geography, and even mathematics can be drawn upon for essay topics. Again, the teachers of these subjects will welcome the assistance of the teacher of English, since the writing of formal compositions on topics connected with lessons will compel pupils to orderly reviews of what has been learned; and, yet again, will prepare pupils for the making of the written statements by which their knowledge will from time to time be tested. Here is a short list of essay topics, all of which refer to matters taught by various subject teachers; usefully revising the pupil's knowledge of the subject, calling for ordered thinking on his part, and training him in the art of giving evidence of the knowledge he possesses.

The Causes of Rain; The Alps; How to Reach the Continent; The Port of Southampton; The Thames; The Life of an Insect; Coniferous Trees; The Rabbit; How the Romans wrote Numbers; Printing; The Feudal System; A Norman Castle; The Chemical Laboratory; The Carpenter's Shop; How we get our Coal; The Cotton Trade of Lancashire; How Steel is Made; The Mediterranean Sea; Tides; A Bunsen Burner.

This list is merely suggestive. The teacher will be able to compile for himself a far better one as a result of finding out some of the topics which his colleagues are dealing with in the lessons they are giving his form. The topics in the list may not appear very inspiring to read through. But the circumstances may easily make them so. The teacher of English is not the person who has been dealing in class with the Bunsen burner; with the result that the pupils will tell him what they have learnt about it with much greater zest than they would talk to the teacher of physics on the same subject. They are, to all appearance, in the position of people giving information to an inferior person; and not in the place of those who are being tested by someone who knows far more than they do.

The first step in the preparation of the essay is, then, an excellent exercise in oral composition. The teacher has discovered, in the staff

common room, that his form has been studying the construction of the Bunsen burner. They have handled it, taken it to pieces, made sketches of it, and have experimented with it in an elementary way. He may say to the form, then: "I hear that you have been studying the Bunsen burner with Mr. Hudson. Tell me what you know about it." Information will readily be given. The teacher will, of course, insist that the answers shall be complete statements. He may take several. Which of them is to be regarded as the first in order? And why?

For some of the children, at least, the first fact to be mentioned is the most outstanding and striking one. It may be that one of the children has been deeply impressed by the experiment of introducing a tube into the "dark cone" of the flame and applying a lighted match to the other end, to demonstrate that the dark cone is made up of unburnt gas. This child, as soon as he is asked to give information about the Bunsen burner, will speak of this experiment. Another will want to talk of the existence of the zones within the flame; and yet another of the way in which the flame is controlled and regulated.

Where shall we begin? Here we meet again with the problem of form, which we encountered when we were dealing with the telling of stories. We shall meet it again when we are dealing with the presentation of topics of less concrete character than those under discussion at the moment. It is easier here than it will be there, simply because the facts themselves impose some kind of discipline on the writer. The child who wants to speak of the structure of the dark cone can be told—"Surely it is not time to speak of this yet. You have not told me what the dark cone is." Simple considerations of this kind, apart from any of a purely literary nature, decide the point at which the essay must begin.

This should be, obviously, a general description of the burner; a statement containing the information that the Bunsen burner is a gas-burner capable of giving a great deal of heat, easily regulated, and invented by the German scientist Bunsen, nearly a century ago. This information will be given in fragmentary fashion, and to the total collected by the teacher many pupils will, in all probability, contribute.

It is possible to give to the mass of information volunteered by pupils at this point a general title of a descriptive nature. The exercise involved in doing this is of far greater value than that which is demanded by the effort to give a title to a story or a picture. It calls for the use of no words of double meaning.¹ It is an approach to *précis* writing. It is a test of the pupils' apprehension of the relation of the facts to the topic as a whole. The general title should be written on the blackboard, with the figure 1 before it. 1. *Description of the Bunsen Burner.*

Before going on to a further collection of facts, the pupils should be set the task of writing a paragraph which is a "description of the

¹ Such, for example, as "Twilight" as the title of a picture showing a bent old woman walking along a country lane after sunset; in which "Twilight" describes not merely the end of the day, but the last phase of the life of the woman.

Bunsen burner". Here is a direct application of the work done earlier in the course. When sufficient time has been allowed for this exercise, two or three of the paragraphs may be read aloud. This will serve as a convenient recapitulation of the earlier part of the lesson.

What is to come next? Discussion will follow the lines already laid down. In all probability, the decision will be that the second paragraph will deal with the details of construction. Eventually, the outline on the blackboard will take some such form as the following:

THE BUNSEN BURNER

1. Description of the Bunsen burner.
2. Construction and parts of the burner.
3. Account of the way in which the burner works.
4. Experiments with the flame, and what they prove.
5. The use of the Bunsen burner.

Whether the paragraphs are written one by one, or whether the teacher, having assured himself by the way in which the first paragraph has been written, that the class understands the relation of the headings on the board to the complete paragraphs, proceeds to the completion of the outline and then asks the class to complete the essay, will depend upon the teacher's estimate of the capacity of the class.

Paragraphing is a matter of great importance, and one which pupils ordinarily find difficult. Many undergraduates in the universities, coming up from the secondary and the public schools, are quite unable to paragraph correctly. It is well, throughout the whole of the senior school period, to insist upon the preparation of an outline of every essay written, and upon the division of the essay into paragraphs, one for each heading of the essay outline—no more, no less.

Further, the teacher should insist upon the "indenting" of paragraphs. The first word of the paragraph should begin, not at the beginning of a line, but from one fourth to one third of the length of the line from the end. It is far better to make the indenting excessive than otherwise, since thereby the teacher emphasizes the importance of paragraphing.

As an exercise, related to the lesson in essay preparation and construction, confirming and emphasizing what has been said, the pupils should be required to read a chapter of one of their textbooks, and to find a brief descriptive title for each paragraph. The result will be an outline of the chapter, standing in the same relation to the whole chapter that the pupil's essay outline bears to his completed composition.

Instruction and practice in the writing of essays of this type is doubly related to a very great part of the work done in all subjects. As has already been pointed out, the teacher of English may draw upon the work of his colleagues for topics. They may assist him very considerably, and themselves also, by insisting that the questions they set demanding essays as answers shall be answered by means of developed outlines. The teacher

of physics who sets the question, "Describe the structure and working of the Bunsen burner", should expect an essay as an answer; outlined in the first instance, and paragraphed in agreement with the sections of the outline. Nothing is more fatal to a proper outlook on English studies and their place in life than the prevalent belief that English matters very much in the eyes of the English teacher, and hardly at all in those of anybody else.

Pictures and Composition

Every teacher of English knows the value of pictures, especially as aids to oral and written composition. Junior pupils especially who make little response to any other stimulus, often react to a picture that really interests them and begin to take an active part in the oral composition lesson. We include in this volume a few pictures typical of a kind which teachers of English find particularly useful. They have been selected because they appeal to children of various ages, and not because all of them are famous pictures by artists of renown.

The plate facing p. 120, "The Bewitched Bicycle", is included as an example of the "strip-story"—a little tale told in a series of simple outline pictures which quite small children can "read" and talk about long before they have overcome the mechanical difficulties of reading and writing. Many teachers of juniors collect such picture strips and use them with great effect in their oral or their written composition lessons. They take care, however, to clip off any descriptive or explanatory matter, leaving the picture strip to tell its own tale, and giving pupils the opportunity of exercising their own imaginations.

The plate facing p. 136, "The New Broom", forms an excellent subject for oral composition with small juniors to whose love of animals and toys it makes an irresistible appeal. It is easy to imagine the delight with which little boys and girls will give names to the baby, the dog, and the cat, and the zest with which they will make the scene spring into real life as they tell the story.

The plate facing p. 152, "Caught by the Tide", is a picture that tells a story, but is a picture of a quality high enough to give it a place in the Guildhall, London. Both juniors and seniors will see in this picture enough to provide them with excellent material for a story of a thrilling rescue.

The well-known picture by Ernest Crofts, R.A., "Charles I on his way to Execution", is reproduced here in colour, facing p. 192. Such a picture not only aids the imagination of pupils asked to describe the scene or relate the occasion, but it also gives an abundance of detail which teachers can utilize in descriptive exercises—the appearance of the King, the dress and equipment of the Roundheads, and so forth.

The coloured frontispiece depicts an incident from Shakespeare's play *King Richard II*, and is valuable in at least three ways: (1) as an illustration to the play itself; (2) as a question-subject on the play; and (3) as a source

of several types of composition subject. Pupils will be interested to identify the actors and to relate the incident of the scene, which occurs in Act IV, Scene I. Richard is saying:

Here, cousin, seize the crown;
On this side my hand, and on that side yours.
Now is this golden crown like a deep well
That owes two buckets, filling one another,
The emptier ever dancing in the air,
The other down, unseen and full of water:
That bucket down and full of tears am I,
Drinking my griefs, whilst you mount up on high.

Facing p. 160 is a photograph of the West India Docks from the air, and this will appeal particularly to boys in the senior school, who will think it no hardship to write short composition of the following types based on the picture: (a) Describe how steamers enter and leave the West India Docks; (b) Give an account of a walk round one of the large docks of the Port of London; (c) Explain clearly how the docks are in touch with the rest of the country, and with the outer world; (d) Write a descriptive account of the West India Docks, and their trade. The last exercise is likely to send the pupil to other sources of information.

These pictures are but a few examples of the very many types which the teacher of English will collect for use in the course of his work both in the junior and in the senior school.

The Debating Society

It is as well to discuss the debating speech here, since it is so closely related to essays of the type we have been considering. Senior boys and girls take very readily to debating, particularly if care is taken to choose topics which can be intelligently discussed by them. From the first the proceedings of the debate should be formal, for the pupils will find that ceremonial adds very greatly to the interest of the debate. The actual conduct should be under the control of a pupil as chairman. In effect, the debate will be taken up with two "essays" of about eight minutes' duration, two shorter ones lasting four or five minutes each, and a number of "paragraphs" occupying one or two minutes in delivery. That is to say, about ten pupils will have an opportunity of speaking to a critical audience in the course of the lesson period given up to the debate.

A typical programme will perhaps give more information about the organization of a debate than a marshalled list of general information. It will be less misleading, too, since schools and pupils vary so greatly that detail is often of little use. Again, it is far better to work out details in accordance with needs.

AMBLESIDE ROAD SENIOR SCHOOL EMLINGCASTER

FORM II B DEBATING SOCIETY

On Friday, 23rd May, 1930, at 3 p.m.

Mr. John Chadwick will move:

“THAT HOMEWORK OUGHT TO BE ABOLISHED”.

Miss Winnie Mellin will second

The Rejection will be moved by

Miss Nancy Davies

Seconded by Mr. Frank Smith

In the Chair:—Miss Lucy Brent

Arthur Potter,

Hon. Sec.

The poster should be the work of the assistant honorary secretary. It should be neat and clear, attractive, and legible. The teacher should insist from the start that school notices must not be written on untidy scraps of paper, illegibly scrawled over, and obviously the work of somebody who believes that notices of debates are not very important. Untidy posters are suggestions to anybody who reads them that the functions they announce are of no importance whatever, whilst a poster that has evidently called for pains and effort is a suggestion that the debate matters a great deal. The honorary secretary should sign the poster himself, thus approving the execution and guaranteeing the accuracy of the information.

The honorary secretary is responsible for announcing the arrangements made, for seeing the people who are to take part in the debate, and for keeping the minutes of the debates and the meetings of the debates committee. At first he will probably need a certain amount of assistance from the form teacher, but he will gradually learn to dispense with this. Pupils, listening at each debate to careful and accurate summaries of the last debate, and comparing them with their own recollections, will receive a valuable training.

There should not be, at first, any rearrangement of the classroom for the purposes of the debate. The chairman should be seated in front of the class, at the centre; preferably behind a table. On either side of him should sit the mover of the resolution and of the rejection, and next them their seconders.

The chairman should be instructed by the teacher in regard to his duties and in the form of words he is to use. He should call formally

on the secretary to read the minutes of the last meeting. He should ask the meeting if it is their wish, when the minutes have been read, that they should be signed as a true record of the proceedings of the last meeting, and should ask for an indication, by show of hands, of those in favour or against. This completed, the chairman asks if any member of the society has any further business to bring forward; and, if there is none, calls formally upon the proposer of the motion to speak, using the words: "I call upon Mr. John Chadwick to move the resolution—'That homework ought to be abolished'."

The proposer knows already the time limit to which he is subject. He has prepared his speech—perhaps with the advice and under the supervision of the form master—and now proceeds to deliver it. We do not say that he should never, in any circumstances, be allowed to read the speech; but he should certainly be discouraged from doing so. He should certainly have thought about it, collected material for it, prepared an outline, written the speech carefully, and committed it to memory: this is the ideal course. He may be permitted to keep before him the very brief outline which is the skeleton of his speech, to refresh his memory and to ensure that the topics of his speech are dealt with in proper sequence. Exactly similar considerations apply to the speech of the seconder. Obviously the proposer and the seconder should be in close touch whilst they are preparing their speeches. They should survey the field they are to cover together, and divide it between them.

The mover of the rejection will have, in measure, to anticipate his opponent's line of argument. He will need to be prepared, as he listens to the opening addresses, to change completely the speech he has prepared, or at least to modify it considerably in part. This means that the mover of the rejection will frequently be required to show more resource, more initiative, and more alertness than the mover of the resolution.

When the four opening speeches have been delivered, the chairman announces that the motion is now before the meeting, and that members may speak when called upon by the chairman. He then calls upon such members of the form as appear to be trying to "catch his eye", allowing them a short but definite time in which to make their remarks.

Presently, when no more members of the class wish to speak, or when the time allotted to the debate has come to an end, he says: "I shall now ask you to vote on the motion before the meeting. The motion is: 'That homework ought to be abolished'. Will those in favour of the motion indicate in the usual way, by raising the right hand?" Hands are raised, and the chairman asks two members of the class to count the numbers. This done, he asks: "Will those against the motion indicate in the usual way, by raising the right hand?" He then announces the figures, and states whether the motion has been accepted or rejected.

The English teacher will realize that the Debating Society is really a formal and dignified setting of oral composition in English. It can be used to give English studies freshness, interest, and prestige. It stimulates

not merely creative activities, but critical activities too; and good work in English, like appreciation, calls for a nice balancing of the two. It is the teacher's business, then, to see that the Debating Society fulfils its object. He must see that membership is regarded as a privilege. He must assist the chairman by advice, indicating to him breaches of order, advising him how to deal with them. He must see, too, that if the chairman has to "name" a member for defiance of the ruling of the chairman, the committee deals with the offender, suspending him from further meetings until they are assured that he may with propriety resume membership. He must back the chairman and the committee, and make them feel that he is backing them. He must make them realize, too, that they are responsible people, though they may always come to him for advice and help.

The teacher who has never experimented in this way with boys and girls has many surprises in store for him. He will be amazed at the competence children of eleven and twelve years of age will show for running societies for themselves. The dignity and firmness of the youthful chairman will come as a surprise. He will be astonished, too, at the variety of topics the pupils ask to discuss. The very fact of liberty of discussion gives pupils a new interest in the world, and these new interests afford possibilities of expression to boys whose lack of real interests had led former teachers to think them possessed of less than the normal complement of intelligence.

Occasionally a political topic will be suggested. But certainly no attempt ought to be made to induce pupils to pay attention to political subjects. Boys and girls are far more aware of the school than of the nation as the community to which they belong, and their real "politics" deal with matters relating to their school life. They will want to discuss the propriety of homework, the powers of prefects, the place of sports and compulsory games, the value of out-of-school organizations, the worth of certain school subjects, the advantages or disadvantages of mixed schools, and so on. But events in the outer world will stir them to discuss the abolition of capital punishment, disarmament, prohibition, socialism (or even communism), free speech, traffic regulations, and a multitude of other matters. These topics are beyond them, it is true: and most of them, if we will only face it, are beyond us also. Never mind. Let them arrange their thoughts and opinions at this stage. It is the only way in which they can properly prepare to go farther.

The teacher should participate in debates. To withdraw is a mistake, since it can easily be interpreted to mean that he is not greatly interested. He must take part, though, as an ordinary member; carefully observing all the rules of procedure, obeying the chairman's rulings, and speaking only by invitation of the chairman. Other teachers should be invited to attend, but the invitations should be written ones, sent, not from the teacher, but from the committee. On special occasions, speakers might be chosen from outside the class. If there is a motion denouncing the study of French as a waste of time, Miss Evans, who teaches French,

might be asked to move its rejection. If the prefects are to be attacked, they might be invited to come and listen, and permitted to speak in their own defence. This outside co-operation from time to time might very well help to remove an air of "provincialism" which often accompanies the development of a strong group spirit.

Occasionally, a joint meeting of two debating societies might be arranged. One form will provide the speakers for the motion; the other those for the rejection. The object of these special meetings is to keep the level of interest high. If it is felt that a debate has fallen a little flat, then something special should be arranged for the following meeting.

Topics for debate should be suggested by members of the class, and should not be imposed by the committee. For this purpose it is a good plan to have a box provided with a slit into which papers may be dropped, fixed in a prominent position. Pupils should be invited to write topics on pieces of paper, which should be signed, and to drop them in the box for the consideration of the committee.

Committee meetings should be regularly held, and records kept of the attendance of members. It is perhaps a good practice to elect a new committee at the beginning of every term, if only to make the form feel that the committee is representative and to make the members realize that they are responsible to the people who have elected them, and by whose favour they hold office.

Sufficient has probably been said to make the teacher of English, who has never attempted to use the debating society as a means of developing interest in his subject, and a way of increasing its interest for his class and its importance in their eyes, realize that the experiment is worth trying. He must see, from the very start, that he is asking a great deal of children when he asks them to run an organization for themselves. They have the capacity, but it is so rare for them to be given the opportunity that both they and we have ceased to believe that they are able to do anything of the kind. They, on their part, can hardly believe at first that the teacher really intends to leave them free to carry on a society of their own; and watch to see at what point he will interfere. When, however, they realize that they really are free, they assume responsibility readily and seriously. They show themselves impatient of speakers who will not trouble to prepare their speeches well or to deliver them properly, and their criticisms are frank and fearless.

The direct gain to the English teacher is very great. He finds his pupils taking an interest in a wide variety of topics, and relating this interest immediately to correct expression in English. One of his principal aims, that is to say, is achieved directly through the activities of the debating society. Nor need he fear that the benefits will cease with the termination of school life. A boy who has been an active debater and has learned to appreciate proper forms of discussion is not likely to enjoy or tolerate "arguments" of a lower standard. Whatever occupation the boy may follow in later life, he will benefit from the course in public speaking, as

speaker and auditor, which the debating society of the senior school offers him.

One lesson period in each week can profitably be given up to the debating society, or, if this is not practicable, a lesson period per fortnight. It is important that debates should be held regularly, and that proper arrangements should be made beforehand. The art of impromptu speaking may be a desirable one, and well worth cultivating at a later stage; but the whole purpose of the discipline of the debating society is defeated if the children believe that a speech worth making and worth listening to can be invented without thought or preparation. If speeches, why not essays? Why not stories and poems? The capacity for acting without taking thought comes only after long periods of taking thought, in exactly the same way that our easily performed habitual actions follow only upon long practice.

CHAPTER V

Creative Work

Some teachers will have grown impatient with much that has been said in the foregoing pages. So much has been said about writing on such topics as Bunsen burners, the climate of India; and not a word about the splendour of gorse or the grace of willows. Nothing has been said about the beauty of pre-Raphaelite masterpieces. Nothing has been recommended that is likely to turn the pupils' thoughts to loveliness, no incentives to creativeness and originality have been suggested. No means to fine writing has been suggested!

This may or may not be unfortunate. Everything depends upon the teacher's aim. The writer believes very strongly, as a result of his own experience as a teacher and as a reader, that nothing whatever ought to be done to encourage "fine writing". Fine writing is almost invariably dated, and the pupil who pleases a teacher with it to-day will live to amuse his younger contemporaries with it in the future. Few critics would now praise the literary style which made Ruskin famous in Victoria's reign. Sir Thomas Browne and Walter Pater survive only for the few. Simple, sincere, straightforward writing about people, events, and things alone has a universal character, a capacity for appealing to many people at all times. Hazlitt, Borrow, Gilbert White, and John Bunyan—these are some of the people who survive.

So far, we have dealt merely with the means of encouraging children to write simply and sincerely about things they know and understand, about objects and events. We have not spoken of the result as literature, though literature of a humble sort it is. We have suggested ways of encouraging children to describe common things, to say in simple English

what they are, what they are like, how they are constructed and how they work. We have demanded that these accounts should be clear and intelligible, so that the people who read them may henceforward possess clear knowledge of the objects and events described, as far as the writers know them. Briefly, we have suggested as an aim to the pupils, the communication of information—clearly, unequivocally, and economically.

If our pupils succeeded in this and went no farther, they would already have outstripped the mass of mankind. Few things are rarer than the capacity to describe things and events simply and clearly, unequivocally and without excess of words. Every business man receives daily numbers of letters whose meaning is not immediately clear, which contain irrelevant matter, which are badly constructed and poorly written. The time of busy editors is wasted cutting out words which are unnecessary. Comparatively few men and women can write clear and concise directions for the carrying out of a simple process.

It must be remembered, too, that the student of painting who is on the way to become a great creative artist is not on that account to be excused drawing lessons, nor allowed to remain ignorant of the art of mixing colours. Nor is the composer able to dispense with knowledge of notation, or to escape altogether the tyranny of scales and exercises. However great the flights of imagination the pupil may take in the future, if they are to become literature it is essential that he shall be able to write English.

Nevertheless, we cannot afford to ignore that the "expression" of himself calls for more than this writing of what he knows, this recording of facts and reasonings. Perhaps it may be put in this way: A thrush singing in a garden may be described very much as we have already discussed description. The bird itself, the trees and the garden may be the subject of an essay or the subjects of three. The scene may be recorded by a camera, or the sound by means of a gramophone record. There is, however, something which cannot come to the camera or the gramophone, which comes to the human being who listens. This comes in different measure to different listeners; to some hardly at all, and to others greatly. We may call this "something" rapture, or ecstasy, or delight. We may speak of the state of the person who experiences it as the "poetic state". The objects which are able to induce the poetic state in observers or listeners we speak of as "beautiful".

It is extremely difficult to use words in any definite way in this connexion. Wordsworth's hackneyed lines about "Peter Bell" come to mind at once. But Wordsworth can only be vague about the "something more" that a primrose meant to him than it meant to the man who had said everything when he had said "yellow primrose". Wordsworth does not, however, ridicule Peter Bell because the flower is a yellow primrose to him; but because, when he has seen all its details and described them, he has dealt with the whole of his experience. Wordsworth had,

in greater measure than most men, the capacity for minute observation and exact description, but he had also the capacity for the something more.

It is to be feared that, in many of the schools, teachers who have very little idea of the real significance of literature are engaged in teaching it. A charming poem like Walter de la Mare's *Nod* is something which is to be read in class, and then "explained". This means that de la Mare's delight in clouds has to be ignored, but that there has to be talk of the forms and shapes of clouds, and discussion of the origin and occasions of clouds. Poetry vanishes, and agricultural zoology and meteorology is substituted for it. The something more, which is the very stuff of poetry, is completely left out, though everything but the poetry is carefully included. Does anyone really believe that Walter de la Mare wrote *Nod* because he really wanted people to know something about the way sheep were driven by a shepherd, or to know a little more about the facts of country life and rural occupations? What is even worse than such explanation is the belief that, when it has been given to children and duly remembered by them, they have learned to "appreciate" literature! As if one knew Wordsworth through studying the features of Peter Bell!

The very great difficulty encountered here is that anyone who really appreciates literature or any other form of art—sculpture, music, dancing, or painting—cannot explain it to anyone who does not. Colour cannot be explained to the colour-blind, or music to the tone-deaf. Unfortunately, it happens that artistic appreciation is fashionable, so that hundreds of people spend a great deal of time in acquiring what passes with most people for it. They are able to learn a great deal of the history of painting or of literature, the names and biographies of famous writers and artists, details of technique, and other matters which are important aids to full appreciation, but something different from it. It may and does happen that men and women with a great deal of knowledge of painting, gained through university courses and visits to great art centres, have less true appreciation than an unknown and poor man working in a single wretched room. The former appraise a masterpiece: the latter thrills to it.

Let us take an example, a very simple one. Edgar Allan Poe wrote a story *The Tell-Tale Heart*. It is the story of a madman who is moved to fury by the eye of an old man. He waits his opportunity, and kills the old man in his bedroom by smothering him, afterwards concealing the body beneath the floor. When the room is being searched by the police, who are able to find nothing, the murderer betrays himself through his belief that he is able to hear the beating of the old man's heart. This story might have been told in an ordinary newspaper, interested to give the facts of the case and no more. It might have been set out in a textbook of mental disease, which would have given practically the same story; emphasizing, however, quite other details than those of

the newspaper. It might have been told, again, in a newspaper specializing in crime stories, where it would have appeared in expanded form, tricked out with an abundance of adjectives—"shocking", "terrible", "blood-curdling", "ghastly", and the rest. Poe cannot dispense with the facts and events, or with the necessity for writing them in clear and careful English. For him, however—and he was one of the few writers who was completely conscious of his aim—the essential thing was to communicate to his readers, not the mere information, but its meaning to him; the terror and the horror and the cruelty.

Exactly the same thing is true of the often quoted *Home Thoughts from Abroad* of Robert Browning. Browning's catalogue of sights and sounds of an English April, as such, is not outside the capacity of a country boy of ten or eleven years of age, familiar enough with chaffinches and orchards. Many people would believe that the pupil has appreciated the poem when he has translated the words into pictures, and seems to see vividly before his eyes the flowers and the birds of the English countryside, and the bare branches springing into blossom. This, however, is the merest beginning of appreciation. These objects and these pictures have been brought together and described with a purpose in view—the communication to the reader of the experience of exile. Can children appreciate it? Perhaps not. Perhaps the teacher realizes this, and is content that, at the senior school stage, the pupil shall appreciate as far as he is able, leaving full appreciation to the maturer years of after school life. There is no harm in this, provided that the teacher does not allow his class to believe that they have exhausted the significance of the poem; there is, of course, the very real danger that he may unintentionally do so.

We have abundant evidence in the classroom and playground, and in the wider world beyond the school, that children are from time to time profoundly moved by what they see and hear. They talk excitedly to one another, they utter cries of delight, they exclaim, they clap their hands, they jump about on occasion. The sudden sight of something which appears to them to be wonderful moves them, first to silence, and then to cries of "Ah!" and "Oh!" Sometimes, too, they turn to people who are present with remarks which are the raw stuff of poetry. The "Ah!" and "Oh!" mean that the children cannot any longer keep silent, but are moved by deep feeling to *utterance which at the same time expresses and communicates that feeling*. The single word can, of course, communicate the feeling adequately to one who hears the tone in which it is uttered, and is aware of the details of the occasion which calls it forth. But, if these things are made known in the text, then the exclamation can become pure poetry, as, for example, in:

Oh, that with this blossoming plum-branch I could give you the song with which this morning it was quivering!¹

¹ Laurence Binyon, *The Flight of the Dragon*.

Other instances are:

Oh, to be in England
Now that April's there!¹

And O the spring—the spring!
I lead the life of a king!²

Oh, I am frightened with most hateful thoughts!³

See! What is coming from the distance dim!
A golden Galley all in silken trim!⁴

Here are exclamations expressing a wish, a longing, exultation, fear, and wonder. The first is a perfect little poem, and the others are parts of poems. They are not introduced here with the suggestion that they are all suited to children in the lower forms of senior or secondary schools, but rather to show that the feelings which young children experience—wishes, longings, exultation, fear, and wonder—are the material which, with the help of correct English, can be transmuted into literature. Ordinarily we do not, in school work, pay a great deal of attention to this particular aspect of the child's mental life. We are interested almost exclusively in what he knows and learns and understands. If we excite his wonder, it is merely because he will attend more closely to wonderful than to ordinary things. We permit exultation, and even give occasion for it by congratulation or praise, but merely because in this way we stimulate the pupil to greater efforts of learning. The life of feeling we ignore. The expression of the emotions we do not provide for. And yet this life of inner experience and feeling is the source of all creative effort. It is the aspect of life which is expressed in art and literature; or, failing such means of expression, in all kinds of undesirable ways.

Daydreams.—There is no space, in dealing with the writing of English, to speak at any length of the findings of the "new psychology". But writers on the subject, who are familiar with the life of the classroom and with the child, have shown how closely related this inner life is to many of the child's apparently spontaneous activities.⁵ In dreams and daydreams the child expresses his wishes and aspirations. Dr. Kimmins, like other observers, has noticed how freely and willingly quite young children narrate their dreams. Some teachers, who have asked children to write dreams as composition exercises, have found that the exercise is far superior as English work to the ordinary account of a thing, a person, or an event. This does not mean that we ought to ask children to collect and narrate their dreams, or that we ought to look upon the narration of a dream as a literary achievement. What it means is that there is an aspect of the child's life, ordinarily ignored in the school, but perhaps

¹ Robert Browning, *Home Thoughts from Abroad*.

² Keats, *Extracts from an Opera—Daisy's Song*.

³ Keats, *ibid.*, *Fragment*

⁴ Keats, *Teignmouth*.

⁵ See the work of Dr. George H. Green, more especially *Psychoanalysis in the Classroom* and *The Daydream* (University of London Press).

of as great value as the intellectual aspects of his life, which he wants to express but has few opportunities of expressing. The teacher of English, if he understands this aspect of the child, can help him to expression, and thus give him opportunities of development such as can be offered by few. English literature, as a subject of study and as a means of expression, offers possibilities of development such as are not possible to intellectual and technical studies.

The creative activities of the child are manifested at a very early age in daydreaming. Most teachers know the phenomenon, and speak of it as "mind-wandering", "wool-gathering", or simply as "inattention". They know it merely as a nuisance, and seldom know much about the content of the daydream. Like the dreams of sleep, the daydream ordinarily appears as a scene, with the dreamer in the rôle of actor or spectator. Other people may or may not be present.¹

The following are a few daydreams of boys and girls of the age of twelve or thereabouts. They are not in any way extraordinary or unusual:

In my daydreams I am on the stage. It is in the woods and I am a fairy queen. Behind me are three others and they have white dresses on, and round the bottom is a ring of silver tinsel. In each hand they have a silver wand. The wings are spotted with silver. I am dressed nearly the same, but I have a crown of silver, and jewels on it. I am giving a ball to the fairies and brownies. (A girl of twelve.)

In a daydream a little while ago I was thinking I was in the country with some other friends, and after dinner we roamed all round the fields and I was picking flowers. We were wandering all the afternoon, and then came back to the spot from which we started. Just as we were going to begin tea we missed one of the girls and had to go to look for her. We went along and we could not see her anywhere. Then suddenly we heard footsteps and saw her. (A girl of eleven.)

I was living as a rich girl with some good people. Then a person suddenly appeared and asked me to accept the bunch of tea-roses he had brought. This I gladly did. (A girl of twelve.)

I imagined I was in one of the beautiful caves in Derbyshire with my friends. After wandering along some of the corridors I suddenly missed my friends. This did not trouble me very much. I walked along a few more passages leading from the main one. Suddenly a soft pink light attracted my attention, and I made my way towards it. It was a cavern made of crystal of pale shades. It did not have an even floor. Spikes of crystal hung from the ceiling and stood up from the floor. Seated on some of these spikes were queer little elves dressed in soft pale green, while pretty little figures in pale mauve and pink were flitting about. As I watched the scene faded away. (A girl of twelve.)

I am doing good to my country by bold naval actions against the enemy. The action is carried out on a battleship of which my father is the captain. I am rewarded. (A boy of thirteen and a half.)

It would be easy to add to these indefinitely. But these already given will in all probability have served the purpose of convincing the teacher, if he ever doubted it, that he knows the lives and activities of his pupils in part only; and that there is a whole inner life of thought and feeling

¹ This account has been condensed from Green's work, already referred to, with the author's permission. The daydreams are from an unpublished collection.

which is hidden from him. Hidden, not merely in that he does not know it; but deliberately hidden, inasmuch as he is not permitted to know it. If he wants to reveal it, and utilize it in the service of creative work in English, he will have to be unusually tactful and sympathetic.

The daydreams which have been quoted are those of ordinary children working in elementary schools for the most part. They were collected in the course of an investigation; surprising the teachers a great deal, and the investigator not at all. One teacher's remark is characteristic: she said that she did not know that her pupils were capable of imagining such "nonsense". Valuations of this sort on the part of teachers explain why pupils are reticent about their imaginings, and why creative work in English is rare in our schools. Compared with information about the composition of water or the rivers of China, the products of imagination may be nonsense—yet such nonsense is the stuff of which literature is made. *Endymion* was nonsense to the critics. We may be permitted to wonder exactly how some teachers would have marked *Kubla Khan* had it been sent in by Coleridge as a school exercise.

The daydreams should convince the teacher that the pupils in his classes are already embarked on the tasks which, in the hands of a skilled teacher of English, result in literature. Mr. Caldwell Cook was perfectly right when he insisted that the children who produced verses and prose so excellent that many people were inclined at first to doubt their genuineness were quite ordinary children: what was extraordinary was the opportunity. Exactly the same thing is true of the bulk of "gifted" children. Some observers have pointed out that children who produce work of high artistic quality have no idea how good it is, and this is because such expression is natural to them. They indulge in it when they are small, before they have learned something of adult values of life. They indulge in it with their companions, the few who are "in the secret"; so that a group of three or four girls in the middle school will write verse which they show to one another, and to no one else. They would not for worlds show it to a teacher.

It should be said here, too, that the basis of any appreciation children will show of the best things in literature will be a sympathetic understanding of the feelings and desires which have prompted the utterance. Such understanding is basic, and without it the meaning of literature cannot be gained, even by encyclopædic knowledge of the shades of meaning of the words employed or meticulous study of grammatical structure.

The very great difficulty in the way of creative work in the schools does not lie in the inability of the children. Creative power, in measure, is possessed by probably all children; but all teachers have not recognized its nature, all teachers are not prepared to welcome its manifestations, and very few teachers have developed a technique for encouraging its expression.

It is hardly possible to suggest sets of exercises which will develop

expression of creative tendencies in literary form. The history of genius offers little encouragement to teachers. The "little Latin and less Greek" of Shakespeare is often quoted against schools and schoolmasters, and there is certain internal evidence in the plays to show that Shakespeare loved neither. The real point here, however, is not that schooling is opposed to the development of creative expression in such a way that ignorance of school subjects is a condition of genius (rather stupid magisterial utterances from time to time would suggest that foolish people believe this), but rather that scholarship sets up standards which lead men's attention away from the very things which poets think important, and occupies their time so much with external facts that they have no time for attention to inner experience. Here is the problem which the English teacher must work out for himself, since apparently no one can advise him.

The attempt to encourage creative activities and expression will always lead teachers to wonder whether they are not inducing their pupils to pay attention to the wrong things. Parents and colleagues may raise the question as to whether the teacher of English is not deliberately encouraging daydreaming. On the former point he will perhaps reflect sometimes that no man is likely to make a fortune out of really creative work, whether in literature or in art: he will never be able to justify his work in terms of careers, examinations and bank accounts—but only in his reply to the question "Is not the life more than meat?"

The second point is more serious. The possibility of the existence of such a danger has been suggested by no less eminent an educationist than Sir John Adams. A little reflection on the nature and occasion of the daydream will show, however, that the teacher of creative English is the one person in the school who is least likely to encourage daydreaming. For daydreaming is evidence of deprivation, and daydreams are expressions of tendencies whose expression is frustrated in ordinary life.¹ The English teacher actually utilizes these daydreaming tendencies, or may do so, and thus develops them usefully beyond the level of futility at which they ordinarily remain.

Suppose, then, we have a teacher of English, with highly developed sensibilities and keen appreciation of good literature and art, possessed of sympathy and tact, and believing that ordinary pupils have creative capacity which only needs direction—suppose we have such a one, what is he to do in the lower forms of senior or secondary school?

Shall he take seriously Stevenson's "sedulous ape" recommendation? Shall he set his pupils deliberately to imitate the style of this or that author? Those people who suggest to us that this course should be followed forget entirely that Stevenson had an incentive which the school cannot, in the first instance at least, supply. Stevenson had something he wanted to say. He wanted to write. When he had written he found that he had not said what he intended: words were there, sentences too,

¹ On this point see Dr. Green, *The Daydream* (University of London Press).

and a meaning of some kind. The sense of failure and the determination to succeed, drove him to the study of those who had splendidly succeeded. Until our pupils have realized how far their performance falls short of their aim, until they are possessed by the determination to succeed, and until they realize something of the triumph achieved by the masters of literature, the models of style which some writers of textbooks would impose upon them will seem meaningless. The effort to imitate them will result in mere insincere copying. The sincere art student does not copy the masters because he wants to possess copies of masters, but because he wants badly to express something for himself, and is trying to find out how others succeeded where he fails.

We arrive eventually, it appears to us, at the decision that the basis of creative work in English is twofold.

- (a) Creative tendencies in the pupil, which cannot find expression in action but are ordinarily expressed in futile daydreams, may find satisfactory expression in literature and art.
- (b) Creative literature already exists in the mother-tongue. The pupil can appreciate it only because it is an expression of what is in himself demanding expression. With this appreciation of literature may or may not¹ come the urge to express himself in similar ways.

It is this which leads us to the conclusion which must underlie our teaching practice—that creative work in English must begin with appreciation.

Teaching Practice

We teachers are all, as a result of our work and training, obsessed with the belief that “understanding” is limited to what follows upon “explanation”. We fail to understand the child’s remark: “I think I could understand, Mother, if you would not explain”. No explanations of water such as the chemist and the physicist give us, or of the way in which water affects our senses which the physiologist gives us (though these open new worlds of wonder to us), can help us to appreciate the charm and delight of water as the poets and painters convey it to us: though, if we already appreciate at first, such explanations may add something to our enjoyment through intensifying our wonder. So much is necessary to justify the method of approaching the problem of appreciation here recommended.

Let us begin a lesson by asking children of eleven or twelve to tell us what they can of the life of a sailor. The lesson develops into a conversation, in which many are taking part. Some of the children want to be sailors, believing that as such they might realize many aims which

¹ May not, because appreciation is itself a form of expression which may, in many cases, be adequate. Many people are able to “enjoy” music, painting, and poetry, without any desire to compose or play, to paint or to write.

are not fulfilled in their daily lives. They will speak of the excitement, the danger, the risks. They will emphasize the bravery of the sailor. The pupils will talk of the joy of seeing new lands and strange peoples. Some will speak, in their own way, of the delight of being away from streets and houses, in quiet and a solitude broken only by the sight of passing ships. The teacher will take as little part as possible, filling only the rôle of director; accepting an answer here, encouraging there a boy to speak at greater length.

Does the sailor ever tire of this? Does he ever wish to be at home, to see his friends, to lie again in a comfortable bed, to walk in a roomy street? The conversation at this point takes a new turn. Can the sailor ever become sick of the sea? Let us imagine, the teacher suggests, a sailor who has given up the sea, and tried to settle to a life on shore. The pupils will begin at once to realize something of the regrets and longing which possess a man of this kind. They speak of the things he misses, the things he wants to experience again. The teacher encourages boys to talk, himself contributing to the discussion. When it is at its height he tells them: "You understand, then, how such a man feels. Now listen to this. One of the greatest of our living poets, who was himself a sailor, has written about this very matter."

Then the teacher reads, as perfectly as he is able, Masfield's *Sea Fever*, and the lesson is ended.

This technique gives the poem the place it should occupy in the lesson—the climax. No anti-climax of explanations of words follows, nor the bathos of paraphrase. Later, the teacher may put the book containing the poem on a shelf, and tell the class that the poem is there for them to read for themselves. He should note how many of the pupils, and which, read the poem. It will be a very effective test of his success.

Again, show a picture of Florence or another Italian city. Let it be discussed. Let a composition be written describing the appearance of the town. Most of the children will find in it something that pleases and charms. The assistance of the geography teacher may be asked for, and he may be asked to emphasize, without giving any particular reason for doing so, Italian climatic conditions in April.

The class has now the background of facts which is essential to the lesson the teacher has prepared for them. A brief reference to the picture, the essay, and the geography lessons is all that is necessary to start a discussion on the subject "Living in Italy". Talk of blue skies, fruit trees, dry and sunny days, white houses, leads us on to talk of the life and feelings of an Englishman living in Italy after the short spring has passed. We discover that, interesting as Italy may be, a man who has been brought up in England will miss a great deal. The hard blue sky will appear to him less beautiful than one flecked with moving white clouds. The dull green of olives and cypresses will appear less beautiful than the fresh green of spring leaves. He will miss the songs of birds. As he looks out on the dry grassless plains and the dusty roads, and feels the sultry heat,

he will long for the freshness of an English spring. Then, as the climax of such a discussion as this, the teacher may introduce Robert Browning's *Home Thoughts from Abroad*.

This method of dealing with the poem takes into account the important fact that for proper appreciation a proper mood is necessary. The early part of the lesson, the discussion, is merely a means of evoking the mood in the pupil. Then we present material completely in harmony with the mood. It is essential to choose the right moment, for to read the poem too soon or too late is to make it miss part of its effect. How efficient the preparation has been and how correctly the proper moment has been judged, the teacher may discover for himself by the effect the poem has upon the pupils.

In essentials, this method is that which has been followed by Čizek in Vienna, which has led in his hands to the amazing original drawings from young children whose exhibition startled the teachers of Europe and America. Teachers everywhere refused to believe that these works of art (for many of them were nothing less) were the unaided work of young children, chosen at random from the child population of Vienna. Čizek's method for producing many of these pictures was a discussion of some topic, say "Spring". The teacher may follow the same method.

A day should be chosen when trees are beginning to burst into leaf and bloom. There should be a few bright spring flowers on the table in front of the pupils. The occasion should be a warm, bright morning when the blue of the sky is relieved by drifting flecks of white cloud. "Spring is beginning. Shall we talk about it?" This is a far more appropriate opening than "Tell me what you know about spring", a demand which, on account of its similarity to the customary beginnings of other lessons, suggests that the teacher merely wants a mass of meteorological information. As the lesson goes on, and one pupil adds to the information given by others, or says flatly that he does not feel about Spring as Dick Jones has said that he feels about it, it becomes clear that there is a mass of available material for discussion which cannot possibly be heard. At this point the teacher says, "If any of you are ready to begin writing now, you may." Why not? In the case of those children who want to begin, the lesson has already achieved its end. These children are already inspired, and if we force them to go on listening, whilst they are bursting to express themselves, we are likely to rob them of their inspiration. Every teacher who has ever worked with a class engaged in creative work knows that it is now or never: moods are not enduring. Every effort of this kind should be followed up by lessons in which pupils are introduced to the work of some great man who has written upon the same topic.

Very obviously, it is of importance that pupils should have access to literature of good quality. We do not want in the schools the pale reflections of literature—the works of masters adapted by people who are merely skilled writers. As a class reader we may use, for the junior classes, a book of good extracts from great literature. The bulk of these

should be stories, rather than purely descriptive work. The author's name and the work from which the extract is taken should be given. The extracts should be such as to encourage the children to want to read more, and the teacher should encourage them to make use of their knowledge of the source to borrow the complete work from the local library. In addition, there should be, as has already been pointed out, a number of books to which frequent reference will be made, on the shelves of the form or school library. The works of poets and anthologies of verse should certainly be included.

The great difficulty which the teacher has to face, when he demands creative work from pupils, is this: creative work cannot always be done to order. We do not say that it can never be done to order, for some first-class work has been done in this way. But though the teacher can reasonably ask a class to let him have an essay on "A Seaport" at the end of a lesson period, he cannot expect to have imaginative work of high quality by a stated time. There are times when imagination seems not to work at all, and others when the pen can hardly keep pace with the thoughts that come like a flood. One of the reasons for distrust of imaginative or creative work in the school is this very fact that imagination is something which does not easily fit into time-tables.

Many such teachers have found an adaptation of the Dalton Plan good. The matter works out in this way. So many lessons per week are at the disposal of the English teacher. Some of these, as few as possible, he will require for class work, for teaching, and for discussions. During the remainder the children should be allowed to work for themselves, at their own rate. They are given a programme, or an "assignment", which should occupy their free English lessons and their homework periods for a fortnight. The total time thus set free may be six or seven hours. Certain English exercises are to be worked, and certain essays written. The remainder of the time is set apart for creative work and for reading.

The free periods, when the pupils are working at the part of the assignment they have chosen, is a great opportunity for the teacher. He is able, at such times, to call pupils to his table, and sitting there with them in low conversation about the work they have handed in, to give them that personal encouragement and approval which makes all the difference in the world to creative work. Children—boys in particular—are extraordinarily shy about their creative thought. They know that if they endeavour to state their feelings about the things of the great world which move them profoundly, they will say something that will not stand the test of common sense. The child who saw a man cranking a car, and cried in ecstasy to his mother, "Mother, that's me winding up that car!" had said something that was very true indeed, though his mother only laughed. The majority of the children in our schools have been laughed at from the time when they were born, whenever they have ventured to say things that are, in their way, truer than the utterances of common sense. Such statements reach out towards Shelley's *Ode to the West Wind*.

But early ridicule has taught the child a lesson, the advisability of wearing a mask; of erecting impenetrable barriers between his feelings and the outer world. The teacher has much to do before the child will pull off the mask or lower the barriers. It is in these free periods that the steps may be taken. One says to the child, "I like that phrase of yours about daffodils." And then, "Tell me what you were doing when that came into your head." The child begins to speak. He may talk in the dullest way about everything else that occurred on that day, or he may, on the other hand, make you realize how much there is in him, which shyness and timidity keep him from putting on paper. In the first instance you must console yourself with the thought that at least *something* happened on that day, and hope that more may happen on another. In the second, you may congratulate yourself on having lowered the barriers a good deal farther, and believe that it will not be long before the difficulty of writing is lessened.

The Teaching of Poetry

Should poetry be taught? The answer to this is simple and definite. *Poetry cannot be taught.* Verse may, but verse is not necessarily poetry. Do we want to teach verse? The art can be easily acquired. Every textbook of grammar, a few years ago, used to contain a section entitled "prosody", which gave the rules of scansion. If the student cared to read a line of verse in the following fashion:

Oh, LOVE, could YOU and I with FATE CONSPIRE

he realized that the line was made up of five units ("feet"), each consisting of an unaccented followed by an accented syllable. The pupil learned that there were two kinds of two-syllabled units, and three kinds of three-syllabled units. It was extraordinarily easy to construct verse after such a pattern, and not many years ago every parish clerk in the country was an expert in the art, as the epitaphs in many village churchyards remain to prove.

Children do not like poetry. This statement is frequently made. We ask them—"All who like poetry hold up your hands." Only a few respond, as a rule. We ask why not. Some say at once that they like a story better. Some say they do not understand it. A few, here and there, do not care for rhyme. We turn to those who like poetry, and ask them to tell us some of the poems they like. Often enough the real disappointment lies here: what they like is the merest doggerel—balderdash expressed in tum-ti-tum-ti-tum-ti-tum's! It is not poetry at all!

It is just as well not to be discouraged at this point, though a response of this kind (and it is a very common response) seems to confirm the statement that "children do not like poetry". One teacher, dealing with a class of this kind, sketched roughly on the blackboard a horse running, and to the horse's collar he attached a sleigh. The children were interested. They suggested a driver, and people. The teacher added to his sketch,

showing roughly a sleigh containing three or four people under a huddle of warm wraps and blankets. The class talked about the snow, dry powdery snow over which the sleigh ran soundlessly through the night—a white road ahead. They spoke of the jollity of riding thus, of gaiety and happiness and laughter. They drew on their imaginations, since none of them had ever ridden in a sleigh, and described the night ride, swift and quiet: not a sound except an occasional peal of laughter, and the tinkling of silver bells.

The teacher changed the conversation suddenly. He told the class that as the sledges passed, with laughter and the tinkling of bells, a man sat in a room with curtains drawn, and heard them. He described very briefly the life of Edgar Allan Poe, speaking of the death of the poet's mother before he was three years of age, and his adoption by the Allans—the kindly woman and her stern, severe husband. He spoke of the fire which destroyed the Richmond theatre, in which the poet's mother had actually performed at one time, and the loss of life. It was almost certain, he said, that the child, lying in the darkness, had heard the alarm bells and the fire-engines passing, and in all probability the red glare from the fire had lighted his bedroom. He went on to speak of the poet's boyhood and his marriage; his happiness followed by his wife's death.

Now the class took part in the discussion. Here is the man, sitting in his room, unhappy and lonely. He hears the tinkling bells and the laughter. How is he feeling at the moment? What thoughts come to his mind? Immediately the class began to speak of his wishes not to be lonely—his wish that someone were with him—the thoughts of his dead wife. The teacher directed the discussion at this point. Very soon some of the girls suggested that very likely the man's thoughts went back over the life he had lived with his wife—back to his marriage. One suggested that he would think of wedding bells. The sleigh bells are silver. What ought bells to be made of which had brought so much happiness to this man? Almost unanimously the class suggested gold, although all of them knew perfectly well that church bells are not made of gold. But gold is like another metal, suggested the teacher. It is like brass, said a boy—and then a girl breathlessly cried out that brass bells are fire bells, and that this would make him think of the fire at the theatre, when he was a little boy. And then, said a girl, he would think of the death bell. These bells, said the teacher, are made of—gravely and quietly the class said—iron.

The pupils heard without surprise that the man had turned away and had written a poem in four verses, which he called *The Bells*, said the class. None of them had ever heard it or read it. The teacher read the first stanza. He did not ask if they liked it. There are occasions when such a question is so unnecessary that it is merely annoying. This was one of them.

What has been gained? This. The class has realized, though few of them could possibly have put the realization into words, that the poem

is the one way of saying something. Nothing else could have said so much so effectively and finally in so little space. There is a further point which might be mentioned. These children have found out something of the reason why poetry is written, and that it can only be fully understood through understanding of the poet. The next time they meet the stanza it will speak directly to them.

One child made the comment that the words seemed to make the sound of the bells. What the teacher hoped to get them to realize in the end, through *The Bells* and a number of other poems, is that prose is somewhat like walking; whilst poetry is nearer to running, skipping, dancing, hopping, quick-stepping, or slow marching. One is like the movement of a man who has somewhere to go, and who thinks more of his errand than of his walking. The other is like the movement through which we show our feelings.

The introduction of verse composition should ordinarily follow this series of steps:

- (a) The presentation of poetry for appreciation. The technique of such presentation has already been suggested.
- (b) Occasional reading of poetry already appreciated. Encouragement should be given to pupils to learn this poetry by heart, and to recite it aloud.
- (c) Later, when encouraging pupils to attempt creative work, the teacher may say, "You may write it in verse if you wish."
- (d) Poetry may be read aloud and, if thumped or tapped to, the connexion with "beats" in music will be obvious at once.

Prosody will follow. It should be taught last of all, and never regarded as more than a help to the understanding of the reason why difficulty is found to occur with certain parts of lines. Prosody will show when reconstruction is necessary. The rules of prosody will not enable a pupil to write poetry.¹

The general rule is clear. Pupils may be encouraged to write verse, but it ought not to be demanded of them if they do not wish to write it.

But, as we have said before, the experiences and feelings of children are the very stuff out of which poetry might be made. There are moments in which the streets are nothing more than the way to school or to the shop; there are others when they lead to none knows where, when adventure waits at every corner, when, as Ben Gilbert Brooks says, "Camelot's in London town". If the boy could only write what the streets are to him in such moods, he would write literature, and perhaps poetry.

It is time to collect together the suggestions which have been made, and to endeavour to arrange the work which has to be done with our senior pupils in tabular form. It is not easy to suggest a general heading

¹ These rules, as a matter of fact, are so uncertain that there is no general agreement amongst authorities as to what they really are. Differences exist even as to what the "foot" or unit of verse may be.

for the purpose of distinguishing other work from that which we have designated "creative". We cannot call it non-creative, since creative it is, though not undertaken primarily for this reason; nor can we call it "intellectual", since this will imply that "creative" work is not intellectual. "Utilitarian" will best express its purpose, and is chosen for that reason.

CHAPTER VI

The Time-table and the Testing of English

In planning the time-table, the teacher should try to preserve a true balance between the two types of work. The utilitarian side must not be neglected, for the child must be a useful member of the community. The creative side must not be neglected, since through it the pupil enters into a larger life.

UTILITARIAN

- Reading with understanding.
- Reading to gain information.
- Writing to convey information.

CREATIVE

- Reading with appreciation.
- Reading to deepen inner experience, and to share the inner experience of great men and women.
- Writing to express feeling and appreciation and to communicate experience.

Reading with Understanding.—Practically all reading may be included under this heading. But, if we wish to distinguish "reading with understanding" from "reading for information", we must exclude from this section what we wish to include in the latter. In this section then we shall include stories which we ask children to read. Stories and descriptions will be taken from three main sources: (a) school readers; (b) books in the school library; (c) books in the public library. Work with the school readers will be taken with the teacher, who will thus know exactly what the boy should understand and will be able, by testing during the lesson and by giving explanations that are called for, to ensure that the work really is understood.

The reading of books in the class or school library will be less under the control of the teacher. He will, however, know what books he has recommended for reading, and will be able to discover, by testing, the extent to which the book has been understood. The reading of books

in the public libraries can be controlled only in a general way, and not in detail. Nevertheless, there are ways in which the teacher may make himself acquainted with what is done by the boys, which will be discussed in a later section.

Reading to gain Information.—Reading for the purpose of gaining information will be carried out in classes other than the English classes—in connexion with physics, chemistry, geography, algebra, arithmetic, and history. The setting and testing of this work will be done by the teachers of these subjects.

In the English classes the teaching will from time to time require boys to read the informative introductions to works which are being studied, i.e. the life of Dickens when *David Copperfield* or some other novel by Charles Dickens is being read, or the accounts of the time of Julius Cæsar or Macbeth, which are prefaced to editions of the Shakespearean plays. Again, such novels as *Ivanhoe* and *Westward Ho!* and *Hereward the Wake* contain a great deal of information about the periods in which they were written.

Writing to convey Information.—The work to be done in this section may be summarized briefly, since it has been already fully treated:

- (a) The writing of brief paragraphs conveying information known to pupils, such as, for instance, items of class or school news. One of the rewards of good work should be insertion in the school magazine.
- (b) The writing of brief accounts of the “how to make” type. The work of the laboratory and the handicraft room may be utilized for this purpose.
- (c) The writing of descriptions of things seen or learned at home, in the scouts’ or guides’ clubs, &c.
- (d) The writing of letters communicating information.

The work to be done under the subheadings of the section entitled “Creative” may be set out as follows:

Reading with Appreciation.—(a) Reading by the teacher of passages chosen for their appeal to the imaginative sympathy of pupils. (b) Reading by the class after the class discussion has evoked the appropriate mood. (c) Reading from anthologies of prose or verse at home. In the case of younger pupils, a suitable preparation may be necessary. But such preparation should be regarded as something to be dispensed with as soon as possible.

Reading to deepen Inner Experience.—This implies a more sustained effort than is contemplated in the previous section. It is the purpose of reading the plays of Shakespeare, the essays of Lamb, &c. The boy should be able, in measure, to see the world through the eyes of Lamb, to suffer with Brutus and to triumph with Portia. Obviously, this is possible only with the older boys; though, if the works be carefully chosen, some measure of sharing the inner experience of great men

is possible to younger boys. Thus the child who fully appreciates the *Christmas Carol* has entered into Dickens' experiences, and the appreciative reader of *Tom Sawyer* into Mark Twain's.

Writing to express Feeling and Appreciation.—This has already been dealt with at length.

The Testing of English

No scheme of teaching English is complete unless, at the time it is being drawn up, consideration is given to the problem of testing it. The ordinary method is by means of a written examination, and to this ordinary method there are a great many real objections. Let us consider a few of them.

1. The mark given in the written examinations has seldom any clear and definite meaning. Thus, if the teacher awards the mark "seven" out of a maximum of ten, it means to anyone other than the teacher nothing more than that the boy's effort is a fair one. Why have three marks been lost? Is the answer inadequate or inaccurate? Have the marks been deducted for technical faults—for spelling, poor grammar, or bad writing? Because of this general vagueness of the meaning of the mark, pupils are often grouped together who are really very different in point of attainment. The boy with accurate information but poor style is bracketed with the boy who conveys misinformation in excellent language. The vagueness is increased by the fact that teachers vary a great deal in their standards. One teacher, arguing that a pupil's effort can never be perfect, refuses to award a higher mark than seven, and thus finds himself compelled to rate the work of many pupils at none, one, or two marks. Another, who wants to mark a medium effort at about five or six, is compelled to give full marks to a great number of pupils. In either case, numbers of pupils are grouped together in a misleading fashion.

2. The ordinary test question is an invitation to the pupil to write what is practically an essay upon a given topic. Perhaps we cannot altogether dispense with this type of question, which is indeed a valuable exercise for the pupil. But in view of the obvious shortcomings of a test of this kind, enumerated below, efforts should be made to supplement it.

(a) Obviously, in a single examination, the number of essays written by any single pupil must be few. Consequently we can test only a small portion of the work. (b) The essay form compels the pupil to omit a great deal. Reading his essay, we cannot be certain whether the omissions are the result of lack of time or lack of knowledge, or the fear of making the essay inordinately long. (c) The time taken in marking essays is altogether out of proportion to the information the teacher receives. Further, the type of error makes any general sort of correction impossible. (d) As a test, the essay is seldom "diagnostic". That is to say, it seldom reveals unequivocally what is wrong with the teaching of English, or

suggests obvious methods of improving the English teaching.¹ (e) So much time is taken up by testing by means of essays, that tests can be given only occasionally. Consequently, the teacher is only informed of weaknesses long after they should have been treated. The custom of postponing tests to the end of the term generally puts treatment out of the question.

The case against the ordinary test then, is that, valuable as it may be for the purpose of preparing reports and as a rehearsal of the public examination, it does not meet the teacher's need of a simple means of testing, not merely whether work has been done thoroughly or badly, but the precise nature of the weakness. Consequently, when planning such a test, the teacher must ask himself what it is that he wishes to know.

Suppose, for example, that *The Merchant of Venice* has been read by the pupils. The teacher wishes to know how far the story of the three caskets has been comprehended by the class. He may ask for an essay, which will take some time to write; more, perhaps, than he can spare. Further, the story is so complex, that he will often be baffled to know whether obscurities are the result of failure to comprehend or lack of power of expression. Let him then prepare such a list of questions as the following:

How many caskets are spoken of in the play?

Of what were they made?

Which was the correct one?

Who chose this?

Who arranged that Portia's lovers should choose the caskets?

Did Portia know the right casket?

Who chose the right one?

Which did the Prince of Morocco choose?

What was in it?

Which did the Prince of Aragon choose?

What was in it?

The plan of choosing Portia through the caskets was arranged to prevent . . .

Here are twelve questions. The second requires three answers, but the rest call for one answer only. Further, there can be no doubt as to whether the answer is right or wrong.

Each pupil will have a slip of paper, and will write down the numbers 1-12 at the left-hand edge. The teacher will call out the questions, one by one, and the pupils will write the answer, or, if they do not know it, will draw a short horizontal line. At the end, papers will be exchanged,

¹ Support of this view will be found in the reports issued by examining boards. "The set books were generally ill-prepared." Does this mean that more work is demanded of the teacher, or that the methods of preparing set authors are wrong? Or again, "the general level of expression was poor". Such a comment may justify a high proportion of failures or a low proportion of credits, but it gives no information at all to the teacher of what should be done to improve matters. It does not even indicate at all clearly what is wrong.

the teacher will call out the correct answers: every correct reply will receive the mark "1", and every incorrect one or omission the mark "0". The total will be written, initialled, and the papers returned. The teacher will ask those who received a mark for the first question to raise their hands, and will note the number. He will thus discover exactly what parts of the play should be read again. He will set the weaker section of the class to reread the whole.

There remains, however, a point to be tested further; one which can best be tested by means of an essay. How did the plan of Portia's father ensure that only one who really loved her should win her? Here is an essay upon a very definite topic, which may be written at home. Surely the teacher who has used the "quiz" and the essay dealing with a definite point knows far more about the work of his class than another who has relied solely upon an essay entitled, "The Story of the Caskets".

The teacher should make it a rule to go over carefully every piece of reading set to his class and prepare a quiz of this kind based upon it; whether the reading is for comprehension or for information. The marks should be recorded. They may, at the end of a month or of a term, be reduced to percentages, and made the subject of a report. The marks will mean something to the teacher and to the class. To the boy the mark of 70 per cent will mean, not that his teacher is strict or fussy or "mean about marks", but that the boy himself notices only two-thirds of the things he should notice when he reads. Because the mark does not depend upon the teacher, but is objective and meaningful, it will stimulate the boy to more careful attention. As has been firmly established, careful attention in the first instance is the most important condition of accurate remembering. The boy will read better if he knows that he is going to be tested.

The quiz cannot, obviously, be used in connexion with creative work. This is not, however, an argument against its use in circumstances where it can be used with advantage.

Another interesting test is the completion test of the "missing word" or "missing phrase" type. The teacher may write on the board:

Portia's lovers were required to choose one of _____. He who chose the right one was to _____; but those who chose wrongly were to _____ at once. Before choosing each had to promise that, if he chose wrongly, he would never _____. Some of the lovers refused to _____, and _____ without _____.

Each of the blank spaces may be numbered. The pupil will write the numbers on his paper and will indicate, against it, the phrase which should appear in the space. Thus a complete paper would have this appearance:

1. Three caskets.
2. Marry Portia.
3. Depart from Belmont.

4. Ask another woman to marry him.
5. Take the oath.
6. Went away.
7. Choosing a casket.

The wording of the answers may vary slightly from this, but the teacher will have no difficulty in deciding whether an answer is right or wrong. The pupil will be made aware, beyond any possible misunderstanding, of what he knows and what he does not know.

It will be necessary for the teacher, who wishes to compile a completion test of this kind, to read very carefully through the section he has set to his pupils, and to write a complete summary of it. He will then decide exactly what omissions will most thoroughly test the extent to which the class has comprehended what has been read, and gathered information from it.

The same type of testing may be used for discovering and correcting weaknesses in the pupil's vocabulary. Thus, for instance, the teacher is not at all certain that pupils are in the habit of using the correct word for certain descriptions, but believes it likely that the wrong word is used. The test takes the form:

Chocolate almonds are { nice.
beautiful.
pleasing.

(Cross out all but the best word.)

The teacher will note, as he hears them, words which are used in the wrong sense by children. He will certainly hear misused the following, amongst others: awful, frightful, splendid, good, lovely, beautiful, fine, fair, decent, filthy, foul, horrible, mean, rich, hard, dirty, blight, rot, jolly, rotten, nice, capital, &c. The context in which these words are used will immediately suggest the exercise. Here is a possible test paper:

1. I think that Jim Walker is a very (nice, capital, good) fellow.
2. Alfred Taylor sent in a (decent, fair, average) geography paper.
3. The story that the newspapers told this morning was (rot, rubbish, inaccurate).
4. It was very (decent, good, generous) of the Mayor to give £100 to the hospital.
5. When I heard that I had failed in the examination I felt (beastly, awful, ashamed).
6. What (rotten, foul, bad) luck!
7. Mr. Overton always sets (horrible, beastly, difficult) questions in his examinations.
8. When Johns was not given a place in the first eleven we all thought it a (beastly, awful, great) shame.
9. It will be a (jolly, lovely, fine) day if the rain keeps off.
10. Sunshine on the sea is a (splendid, lovely, beautiful) sight.

In this exercise the pupil is asked to choose, in all ten instances, the one *best word*, and for the correct choice a mark is given. No other choice is allowed to score.

It has not perhaps been pointed out by other writers that this test is much more than a mere test. The pupil is called upon definitely to reject every form of expression but the best. He definitely scores out expressions that he uses. The actual scoring out makes a far greater impression upon him than does the mere verbal making of a statement.

It will be noticed that the word "beastly" occurs in one instance in company with "awful" and "great", and in another with "horrible" and "difficult". That is to say, the teacher knows, when the test is completed, precisely what difficulties his pupils are encountering in the use of the word—the exact character of their misunderstanding of it. The teacher will naturally justify to the class his reason for regarding one word as the best, and the others as either wrong or inferior to it. He will find, too, that once he begins to discuss words in this particular way, children will voluntarily suggest to him words which they have difficulty in using, or which they suspect to be wrongly used by others.

CHAPTER VII

Grammar and Philology

Grammar

The question as to whether grammar shall or shall not be taught in the senior schools has yet to be decided. Undoubtedly some teachers will demand it, whilst others will strongly oppose it. We shall no longer teach it, as has been the case in the majority of schools (and is still the case in a minority), in the hope that the study of formal grammar will directly benefit composition and ensure correct speech. The recommendation of the *Report on the Teaching of English in England* should throughout be borne in mind—"Keep it simple". There should be no set periods for lessons in grammar. From the beginning it should be taken as part of the English work, as part of the study of the language.

Grammar should begin with the recognition of the simple parts of speech and with the analysis of sentences. In the lower forms boys and girls should learn to distinguish nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They should distinguish between adverbs of manner, place, and time. The sentences used should at first be simple sentences, such as the children readily compose for themselves. "I filled my pen with ink" is an example. The child who knows only nouns and verbs should be asked to underline any noun or verb he can find in the sentence:

I filled my pen with ink.

This sentence is an excellent one for the purpose of introducing the pupil to pronouns. We ask him to write down the name of the person indicated by "I": he writes, of course, his own name. He realizes, too, that "my" stands equally for his own name. Ask him to rewrite the sentence, replacing "I" and "my" by his own name. The sentence becomes "John Brown filled John Brown's pen with ink". What may we say at this stage of "I" and "my"? That they stand for "John Brown". Ask the boy to find another word which may stand for his own name. He will probably suggest "me". We have established, at this point, the important fact that "I", "my", and "me" may be used in place of a noun, which is the name of the person who is speaking. People speak of themselves when they use the words "I", "my", and "me". We may, at this stage, introduce the word "pronoun", giving its derivation, since the derivation explains the meaning so clearly.

Following this, we ask the pupil to read his sentence to a neighbour. We say to this second boy, "John Brown has just told you that he has filled his pen with ink. Tell him what he has done." The boy says to John Brown, "You have filled your pen with ink". This sentence is written by all the boys under the sentence first written, so that the two appear thus:

I	filled	my	pen	with	ink.
You	filled	your	pen	with	ink.

The teacher now says to the class, "You heard John Brown's statement. Will you tell *me* what he has done?" The reply is written down by the boys. On their papers the three sentences appear:

I	filled	my	pen	with	ink.
You	filled	your	pen	with	ink.
He	filled	his	pen	with	ink.

The class is now able to write, as an exercise, the pronouns, which they are able to find in the three sentences:

I, my: you, your: he, his.

If he cares to do so, the teacher may distinguish these pronouns from others at a later stage. In a subsequent lesson, for example, in which pupils see that the noun in the sentence "The tree sheds its leaves in winter" is replaced by "its", they will be able to say that the noun which "its" replaces is a different noun from that for which "I", "my", "you", "your", "he", or "his" can be substituted. For pronouns which may be substituted for the names of people we may give the name "personal pronouns".

Exercises and tests on the lesson may take the form of completion tests. The pupil is told that the blank spaces in the following exercise should be filled by a word which stands for the noun which is underlined:

1. The dog — used to bark every night, has been sold.
2. Is the hat you are wearing the — you bought last week?
3. Charles, put on — boots. I want — to run an errand for me.
4. If you see Tom, tell — — tea is ready and waiting for —.
5. Harry says — has lost the book — father bought for —.
6. Harry has lost the book — his father bought him.
7. All the smoke — you see comes from the factory. I wish they could prevent. —
8. Hundreds of men are waiting there. I believe — want work, and there is none for —.
9. Here is the cake you asked for. Take — and eat — while — is fresh.
10. Which chocolates will you have, — or —?

The teacher will notice that these exercises and tests are really much more. The pupil who completes them will have learned, at the end, that many words he knows quite well are pronouns. He will have learned something of their place in the sentence and their functions. And, in reading the sentences, with the emphasis on the noun and its pronoun, (secured by the attention called to the noun by the underlining, and to the pronoun by the effort to fill the blank correctly), he will have learned the reason for using the pronoun he knows so well; and will have had placed before him, in exceptionally favourable conditions for attracting his notice, good models of proper usage.

Some difficulty is experienced in dealing with the *preposition*. This can be overcome by introducing the preposition in the prepositional phrase. We begin again with a very simple sentence, such as, for instance, "I will come". "I will come" is a sentence, but it is possible to expand it. What question naturally follows the statement? The class will suggest that this question at once arises: "When will you come?" The teacher asks if the sentence can be so worded that this question is unnecessary. "I will come to-morrow," will certainly be suggested. To-morrow, however, is twenty-four hours long. Is a more precise statement possible? "I will come to-morrow at eight o'clock." "I will come to-morrow after tea." "I will come to-morrow in the afternoon." Discussion will result in the statement that "to-morrow" is a word indicating the *time when* the speaker will come: "at eight o'clock", "after tea", "in the afternoon", are phrases serving the same purpose. "At eight o'clock" may be ignored for the present. But "after tea" and "in the afternoon" are to be spoken of as phrases showing time when; phrases, that is to say, which do the work of an adverb of time.

The class should now work at such an exercise as the following. They are required to underline the phrases in the following sentences (similar to the phrases just spoken of) and to say what they can of their work.

1. Walk over the bridge and along the road.
2. It is time that you were in bed and between the sheets.
3. After supper you may come into my room.
4. I read in *Robinson Crusoe* that a man may be happy on a lonely island.
5. The birds of the air were a-sighing and a-sobbing.
6. Six boys in this class are good at arithmetic.
7. The man spoke to us in a friendly manner.
8. Speak in a whisper whilst you are in the room.
9. We shall go to London in the spring by motor-car.
10. He spoke in anger.

When the phrases have been underlined, we can discuss their elements. We have a noun (the case in which we have a pronoun substituted for it should not be introduced at this stage) with sometimes an article before it—and we have a third word. Allow class doubly to underline this word. The words underlined will be: over, along, in, between, after, into, in, on, of, in, at, to, in, in, to, in, by, in. These words have a position *in front of* (pre-) a noun. They form an important part of those phrases which sometimes perform the work of an adverb.

Little more than this can be said about the preposition until we are in a position to speak of the inflections of the older forms of the English language, whose disappearance has made the preposition necessary. Pupils in the senior schools will not, as a rule, learn Latin, and will therefore, in general, not meet with an inflected language. The teacher may test and exercise his pupils by giving them completion tests, in which they will fill in blanks with prepositional phrases indicating time, place, or manner. One sample of such a test is given here:

John Taylor walked home — (time) — (place).

It cannot be too strongly urged upon the teacher that he should compile his own tests and exercises. If he feels that some of the existing books of questions are of use to him, he will still find the need of adapting and selecting. The writer of the book has to bear in mind an average class and an average teacher, average lessons, and average results. Consequently, at best, he can only meet the needs of any given teacher approximately, whereas the teacher himself may, with a little trouble and resource, meet them completely.

The golden rule in teaching grammar is: Be simple. Children are not at all interested in the subtleties which used to delight the Victorian grammarians. The abstractions are beyond them for one thing, and for another, they can see no purpose in attempting them. Grammar in the early stages should be as concrete as possible, and for this very reason it is urged here that it be taught through exercises, and related to sentences and paragraphs similar to those which children write. Grammar, too,

should be interesting, and for this reason it is suggested that such interesting exercises as completion tests should be freely used.

"Be simple" should be borne in mind in the teaching of analysis, which should go hand-in-hand, as has already been pointed out, with the synthesis required in the construction of sentences (see p. 142). Complexities and niceties should be carefully avoided, more especially in the early stages. Sentences should be chosen which are like those which the children use in their composition exercises, and indeed may be taken from these.

From the first, too, the children should realize that analysis and synthesis are definitely related to the writing of English, being really helpful exercises. This does not mean that the teacher should frequently tell the children that the work they are doing is useful, though it may not seem so. It means rather that the work should be so presented to children that its relation to the writing of English is obvious.

A fault which is common in the teaching of analysis is the premature insistence upon the knowledge of terms. The result is that the exercise appears to the children as concerned only with the correct application of unmeaning labels. Let us ignore terms at first, and concentrate upon the simple fact that sentences are made by fusing together a number of simple sentences in definite ways. We begin by dealing with ordinary sentences of the kind which we may discover in any book or in any pupil's essay, discovering the original simple sentences which have been linked together.

1. "The man who saved the life of a child in Kent Street on Saturday was discovered in Birmingham, where he has his home."

The teacher may show that this sentence is really made up of three simple ones:

- (a) The man was discovered in Birmingham.
- (b) The man saved the life of a child in Kent Street on Saturday.
- (c) The man has his home (in Birmingham).

2. "When Captain Cook left the island, the natives, who loved him greatly, ran down the beach and swam after the ship."

The pupils will not find it difficult to analyse this sentence into the simple sentences which compose it.

Exercises of this kind should be given frequently. It is well not to give up whole lessons to them, but to introduce them into the lessons in which we deal with the writing of sentences and the construction of paragraphs. Their purpose is not merely the acquirement of grammatical knowledge, but an understanding of the way in which very simple sentences, dealing with a single subject, may be woven together and given unity. The analysis of one or two sentences per week throughout a term is far better than an infrequent lesson entirely given up to analysis. The

introduction of this work into the ordinary composition lessons, too, establishes the relation of analysis to the writing of English.

Later, we may pay attention to the converse process of synthesis. The teacher sets out three simple sentences, and asks children to do the very opposite of what they have been doing lately, viz. to fuse the three into a single sentence.

The boys are in the third form.

The boys will begin German.

The boys have made good progress in French.

From these there should be little difficulty in forming the sentence: "The boys who are in the third form will begin German when they have made good progress in French", or "The boys who have made good progress in French will begin German when they are in the third form". What difference of meaning is there between the two sentences?

A later stage is reached when the boys have gained facility in both types of exercise, in analysis and in synthesis. They realize that the sentence "The boys who are in the third form will begin German when they have made good progress in French", is really an expanded form of the sentence, "The boys will begin German". But which boys? Those *who are in the third form*. Obviously this clause (the term may be introduced arbitrarily, without definition) does the same work as a single word which would describe the boys—such a word, for instance, as good, industrious, &c.—that is to say, the same work as an adjective. Similarly, we arrive at the statement that the clause "when they have made good progress in French" does the work of an adverb of time.

Let us write the main statement made in the sentence:

The boys will begin German.

Now rewrite it, with the addition of a simple adjective describing "boys" and an adverb of time modifying "will begin". We have:

The older boys will begin German soon.

and then:

The boys who	will begin	German	when they have
are in the			made good
third form			progress
			in French.

Setting the exercise out in this way is a useful preliminary to analysis in tabular form. We indicate clearly the relation of the subordinate to the principal clause.

Whether the teacher goes far beyond exercises of this kind should depend upon the extent to which he discovers that work in analysis and synthesis is really assisting work in English; helping boys in the task of understanding clearly what they read, and helping them in the task of

expressing their thoughts clearly and economically. The teacher should constantly be on his guard against the temptation to teach grammar for its own sake, or to detach grammar from the general body of English studies.

The temptation is the more dangerous, inasmuch as the teaching of grammar is fairly easy, and its results seem to be very definite. The teacher of English often envies his colleague who is responsible for arithmetic, the apparent definiteness of his work, and the certainty of his results. Solutions of problems are right or wrong, whereas essays are far more difficult to mark. They contain much which, though not definitely wrong, might be improved. And this applies still more to creative work, where the assessment of the performances of individual pupils is all but impossible; and the grading of pupils can never attain any certainty. Hence numbers of teachers and head teachers welcome the definiteness of grammatical studies, and give them preference over serious English work. With grammar, and the type of exercise given in the so-called "practical" textbooks of English, many teachers feel that they "know exactly where they are". Grammatical exercises and many textbooks of English are "practical" only in that they give pupils a facility in working exercises of the kind provided—a misleading facility, in that it gives teachers and others the impression that the child is acquiring a mastery of English, though it does nothing at all to ensure that the child gains in power to express his thoughts in clear and simple English. The popularity of such books with teachers is shown by the fact that new series of them, for elementary and secondary schools, are frequently issued. If they must be used, they should be used as medicine, and not as food: their place is in the cupboard, from which they should emerge only on occasions of necessity. Even then they should be used sparingly.

Philology

Many teachers have found it possible to interest children very greatly in the meaning and use of words. Some children are naturally interested in them to a greater extent than others. Most teachers know very well the child who acquires an unusual word and begins at once to introduce it, however inappropriately, into his conversation and written work. If we completely knew and understood why, we should find the basis of a technique, perhaps, of interesting children in words.

This is important, because it leads up to the problem, a serious one from the moral and from the æsthetic point of view, of the reasons why children so often deliberately use objectionable words and prefer vulgar and ungrammatical constructions. If we track these words to their sources, we find that they are associated as a rule with people who are admired by the child. The boy who is not primarily interested in words may sometimes be interested in them because they can be related by the teacher to people and things in which the boy is interested. For instance, the scouts in a class may be challenged to say what the scouts' motto means. Most of them will translate "Be prepared!" by "Be ready!"

But, asks the teacher, why say "prepared" if you mean ready? Dictionaries are consulted, and the meaning of the one word is contrasted with the meaning of the other. Now the teacher may embark on the history of the two words. He will find the example a good one, since he is able to show from it the two main sources of the English language. He can show, too, that words have originated with peoples whose whole mode of life was different from our own and that the word itself has undergone changes of meaning and form as this mode of life has changed. Sometimes, in the course of an explanation of this kind, he may instance such words as "sincere", "tawdry", "trivial", and "alcohol". These words, with their interesting and unexpected histories, will serve to demonstrate to the class without difficulty the remarkable interest which may attach to the study of mere words.

Every day the newspaper will supply the teacher with words for further discussion, and he may set these as an exercise in dictionary searching. The ideal reference dictionary for classroom use should give the derivation of the various words, with examples of their use by standard authors. Very few elementary or central schools are equipped so generously. It is hardly to be expected that a love of the dictionary will be fostered in boys and girls by a book which is a mere compilation of words and definitions. But they are, on the other hand, often greatly interested in the larger type of dictionary, whose illustrations, unexpected information, and instances of usage encourage that browsing which is the mark of the book- or word-lover. The teacher should know what dictionaries of this type the local library possesses; and, once knowing this, he should see that his questions send pupils to the library and the recommended dictionaries for the answer.

Some teachers may find the child's interest in various types of word-puzzle a great help to him; provided he makes use of it in a systematic way. Random use of a haphazard collection of crosswords is not likely to be of any value. But a boy might be quite well occupied in solving a puzzle which he can complete in half an hour. He is expected to bring to school in the morning not merely the solution, but also a comment on the definitions which have been given as clues. In some puzzles many of these definitions are quite wrong, and children will derive a good deal of pleasure from the task of putting them right.

To some teachers it will seem unorthodox, if not frivolous, to introduce crossword puzzles into the classroom. These criticisms are, however, wide of the mark. These puzzles are able to link the use of words to deep natural interests, and to develop a delight in the words themselves and in their use. If the teacher believes that interest in crosswords is confined to people of poor intellectual development, let him glance at the list of solvers of "Torquemada's" puzzles published week by week in the *Sunday Observer*. He will find, too, that if he embark upon the solution of a "Torquemada" puzzle, he will need as a rule before he completes it, to consult dictionaries, gazetteers, and other works of reference. He

is hardly likely to reach the end of his task without learning some new word, new usage of a familiar word, or some interesting new fact.

The real difficulty the teacher finds in the matter of the use of the dictionary is that the pupil will not trouble to look up words unless some kind of compulsion is exerted. Dictionary searching is "too much trouble". Once, however, we are able to establish dictionary searching as a habit, this real difficulty disappears. The use of interesting word games and puzzles—easy in the first instance—is a means of establishing such a habit.

If the teacher decides upon such a course, ways and means can be found. In some schools it will be easy to induce the children to buy a copy of a newspaper, and to solve the crossword puzzle as completely as they are able during the week-end, for discussion on Monday. In other schools, or with younger children, use may be made of paper, ruled in quarter-inch squares, such as is generally supplied to schools. The diagram can be copied on this with little trouble, and the clues written down. Easy puzzles for younger children appear on the children's page of a number of daily newspapers. Children may be encouraged to bring them to school for the teacher's collection.

Attempts of this kind to make words interesting and to make the searching out of their meaning a pleasure, will not exonerate the pupil from the necessity of doing a great deal of hard work. No "play way in education" eliminates the necessity for hard work. On the other hand, play methods, skilfully used, serve to supply a pleasure motive, under whose influence the pupil does far more hard work because he likes it, than he has done in the past through the operation of the incentives of fear, shame, desire for success and the like. The pupil will still need to know a number of Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek roots, prefixes, and affixes, but they will be introduced to him in fresh and interesting ways and in new settings.

Take the following instance: A boy in the class has been sent to the hospital, where he has undergone an operation. The word "operation" itself is an interesting one, which most of the children will know only in its surgical sense. It suggests at once the word "opera", which certainly has nothing to do with the surgeon. Numbers of children will know that, in the local cinematograph theatre, the man who manipulates the projector is spoken of as the "operator". Here, obviously, is a means of introducing the question of "Latin roots".

Or again, the newspaper headlines and posters refer to an aviator. We link the word "aviator" to "aviation", "aviary". Search in the dictionary gives us a great many more words. The teacher may add some French words, such as "avion". All these words are connected with "flight" or with "birds", and all are ultimately linked to the Latin *avis*.

Systematic work of this kind will sooner or later bring the pupil to the point when he will find an interest in working through and memorizing

the tables of roots, prefixes, and affixes, which were at first sight so uninviting. As soon as these tables acquire a meaning and the pupil finds in himself a purpose and a motive, he will work with eagerness.

CHAPTER VIII

English in its Relation to Other Subjects

The importance of the work of the English teacher is very clearly shown by the extent to which his colleagues, not teachers of English, depend upon his efforts. The teacher of history, for example, will waste very much of the time which should be devoted to teaching if he has to deal specifically with notes. He can make full use of the time devoted to history only when he is able to assume that the members of his class are capable of writing now and again a brief comment which fairly represents the matter of a considerable section of the lesson or lecture.

Anyone who has lectured to adults, in university or university extension classes, in summer schools or other institutions, has been frequently confronted by the listener who is anxious to copy down every word the lecturer says. Only seldom can lectures, taken in longhand at the ordinary speaking rate, be read. Again, it is possible to only a few people, or to none, to write a verbatim report and simultaneously think critically—as an auditor should—about what is being said. The teacher who demands that his pupils should write what he says, word for word, in place of thinking of what is being said, has a fundamentally false idea of the work of an educator.

It is very clear to modern teachers—so clear that it seems hardly to be worth stating—that all real education comes only as a result of real effort on the part of the pupil. This effort cannot be made, in history or geography or any other subject, if the pupils' attention is diverted from the actual subject-matter to the effort to write down all that the teacher is saying.

Very obviously, what is demanded of the pupil by a modern teacher is something very different. At the same time, it is something so complex as to elude definition. Teachers of history and geography are apt to be impatient with their English colleague because his pupils are not able to hand in exercises in their special subjects which are written as they believe they should be written. For this situation there seems but one explanation, which is generally adopted, namely, that the English taught in English lessons is very useful for the purpose of passing examinations in English, but has no relation whatever to the English required in ordinary conversation, in writing personal or business letters, in composing brief announcements, or in taking notes.

But this apparent evasion by the English teacher becomes every day

more and more unsatisfactory. The school is changing a great deal, but those who look upon "changing" as synonymous with "floundering" are wrong. Experiments have been made in great number in the past score of years in very many schools, and the general result is that certain broad lines of procedure have been definitely laid down, and are not likely to be departed from for many years to come. This means that the field of experiment will be shifted. Having determined the general character of the school, experiment will attempt to determine the best kinds of procedure within the school.

We can hardly, however, begin to experiment until we can state to ourselves a definite problem on which to begin work. The attitude of his colleagues towards the teacher of English merely indicates the existence of a problem without defining it clearly. Perhaps it may be stated in the following terms: "It is alleged that boys who satisfy the teacher of English of their capacity to write English during English lesson periods fail to write English during history and geography lesson periods."

It is worth while to spend a good deal of time considering this point, because what applies here applies in a number of school situations. We no longer accept the Herbartian pedagogue's doctrine of "correlation" in the same way in which it was accepted in the nineties, but the insistence on the importance of the specialist teacher no longer blinds us (as it often blinded the educationist of fifteen or twenty years ago) to the truth that knowledge must be one and that all the subjects of the school curriculum are linked together by a bond of interdependence. And this means that specialists cannot remain in a position of splendid isolation, but must work out ways of working together helpfully, for the pupils' benefit and their own.

Staff meetings are helpful, but their usefulness is limited. If the history teacher complains that the English teaching is ineffectual, then he must be prepared to tell the English teacher exactly why he believes this; and the English teacher must be prepared to consider seriously his colleague's charges. This calls for moderation and good sense and breadth of mind on the part of both. In passing, we may note that the complaints of other teachers about their pupils' shortcomings in English are so many admissions that the work of the English teacher matters as much to them as to him.

It will be necessary that the English teacher shall frankly ask his colleagues: "Tell me exactly what work in English you want from your pupils. Show me, or prepare for me, what you consider a satisfactory set of notes of a lesson you have given: if I may see your own outlines of the lesson, too, so much the better. Give me a model answer to a question you have set in your subject, and let me see some of the answers with which you are dissatisfied on account of the poor English in which they are written. For it is clear that I cannot understand why you are dissatisfied till I know something of what satisfies you."

Given, in this way, the conditions of the problem, the teacher of English

will find himself in a position to formulate it and to attempt its solution. He will realize that the faults are not entirely on his side, nor is the problem something which he must tackle alone. The teacher of history should acquaint himself with the methods and syllabus followed in English, so that his demands may be made with a reasonable hope of their fulfilment. He must realize, too, that he must make the demands. Those who are interested in problems connected with the "transfer of training" will know that children who speak excellent English in school speak vulgar, provincial, and slipshod English in their own homes and in the street, simply because nobody in either demands good English from them. If the teacher of history or geography decides that he and the teacher of English are to "pull together", the one must see that pupils are adequately prepared to express themselves in the way that the other requires; but no less must the other insist that full use is made of this preparation. The benefit of such collaboration to the teachers concerned, as well as to the pupils, is obvious. The history teacher or the geography teacher may now devote his time fully to his subject, whilst the teacher of English may rest assured that the lessons in history and geography are, from his point of view, practice periods for the exercise of the knowledge acquired during English lessons. He is relieved immediately of a great deal of dull and uninteresting recapitulatory work.

If teachers of other subjects demand that, at a certain stage of their school career, pupils shall be able to make working notes of a lesson during its progress, shall be able to expand these notes into useful summaries of the lesson at home, and shall be able to write accurate, clear, and well-arranged answers to questions based on lessons and on reading, the necessary work in English must be done before pupils reach this stage. Further, if it is to be done by the teacher of English, it must be done as English and not as history or geography or science.

A good deal of this training will consist of exercises in the correct reproduction of the substance of something read or spoken, either immediately after it has been seen or heard, or after the expiration of a short interval. A method, less in use now than some years ago, was the reading by the teacher or by the class of brief anecdotes, humorous as a rule, and the subsequent reproduction by the class. The disadvantage of such material, from the point of view of the teacher of literature, is that the material has little literary value, and may perhaps encourage the pupil to read for the sake of the joke rather than for the sake of literary beauty. Against this we may urge that there are so many good stories that the teacher has no reason for picking bad ones; and that the literary quality of a story depends (as the works of Shakespeare prove) much less upon the story than upon the manner of telling it. The chief value of the humorous story as material is that pupils are able to criticize the composition for themselves. If the story is written so that it is no longer amusing, if the point is weakened or lost, then the composition is a poor one: the teacher's verdict is no longer the arbitrary thing it often seems.

The important matter here is that we are speaking of an exercise which serves the ends of the teacher of composition admirably, and at the same time prepares the boys to meet the demands which will be made by the teachers of history, geography, and science.

A further exercise of value is the giving of titles to the stories which are thus reproduced. The titles of articles in newspapers, and of stories in magazines do not, in many cases, fulfil the same purposes as the titles and subtitles which a pupil should use when he is taking notes. There is a great deal of difference between the title which *attracts without misinforming* and the title which really *informs*. This distinction is worth discussing with classes, in language appropriate to their understanding; for even young children are acquainted with an abundance of material which will illustrate the subject under consideration.

From the story it is possible to go on to a piece of prose narration. Let the teacher talk continuously for ten minutes upon a topic—whether ships or sealing-wax or cabbages or kings, does not matter. At the end comes the question: What have I been talking about? A brief title is found and written on the blackboard. Then follows the question: What was it that I said first about this subject? Other questions follow, and in the end a complete résumé appears on the board. Here is an introduction to orderly note-taking. Pupils are soon able to take *useful* notes of a talk or lecture. A week after the lecture they are required to reproduce it as homework: here they are able to discover for themselves how useful their notes really have been!

These exercises are a useful training in thinking and in expression. Because thinking and expression by English pupils must be carried on in English, and because all school work calls for thinking and expression, the work done in the English classes may be regarded, without exaggeration, as the groundwork of all the school studies. On this account, the English work of the school raises a great many difficult problems of organization. Whatever has to suffer, on account of poverty of equipment, it should not be the English. A great deal of lower-form and junior work is still done by teachers with high qualifications in the subjects they teach to seniors, but who are merely “filling in time” with the juniors.¹ Whatever else sheer necessity may determine, English should never be allowed to suffer in this way. A headmaster, too, often discovers that a highly-qualified graduate, who has specialized in some one branch of English, is unable to appreciate the problems which arise in connexion with the teaching of English in schools; sometimes, too, unable to express himself with the ease and freedom which we demand from senior pupils. The problems of organization in English include the careful selection of the right members of the staff for the various tasks, the provision of adequate materials and proper utilization of resources, the allocation of ample time, and the proper relating of English studies to the rest of the school work.

¹ “Teacher with good honours degree in geography required. May be required to take some French with lower forms. . . .” Advertisements of this kind still appear.

CHAPTER IX

Drama in the Classroom and in
the School

It is the custom in many secondary schools to produce annually a school play or opera for performance before old scholars and parents. The major parts are filled by old pupils, minor parts by senior pupils, whilst pupils in the middle and lower forms take walking-on parts, participate in crown scenes, or make up the chorus. The production is usually in charge of an enthusiastic teacher.

The annual "school play" is seldom any concern of the teacher of English. But its popularity is something that should assure him of the wide and strong appeal of drama, and set him wondering in what ways he might utilize this, and direct the enthusiasm into the channels provided by English studies. After all, the writing of drama is as legitimate an English exercise as the writing of stories, essays, or poems; and the production of drama on the stage is the purpose of writing drama. Written drama must stand the test of production—otherwise, excellent as may be the writing, it is bad drama. If then, the teacher of English is to encourage his classes to write plays, he must be prepared to provide facilities for acting them. The would-be dramatists in the class will have the good fortune to be able to submit their work to a test which is more real and convincing than a teacher's arbitrary mark.

It is important that the teacher and the class alike should not be biased by the type of production which is usual in the ordinary commercial theatre. They should not believe, for instance, that realistic costumes and scenery and a proscenium are essential to a production. The teacher might tell his class something about the Greek theatre, about outdoor pageants, about the performance of "mystery plays" in market-places, in booths, and in the churchyards, and about the Shakespearean stage. He may tell the class something about puppet shows and pantomime. He may send them to the public library in search of information.

First attempts may not be encouraging. In one class in a senior school a teacher suggested to children that perhaps part of Tennyson's *Morte d'Arthur*, which they were reading at the time, might be dramatized. Two boys offered themselves as King Arthur and Sir Bedivere. The former lay down on the floor, and the other bent over him. Sir Bedivere said, "I'm afraid you're going to die." Arthur replied, "I'm afraid I am." Then the two boys stood up and looked at the class, not knowing how to go on. Not very encouraging, this! But no practical teacher expects perfect success on the first occasion. Everybody who has studied drama knows very well that drama is difficult, and that all the experiments in staging and production are attempts to overcome difficulties. As a matter of fact,

nothing could have been better for the class than this first failure. They laughed for a few minutes at the comic attempt which had been made, and then were ready to settle down to discussion of the question—"What was wrong?"

The first suggestion was that the boys should have said more. There was general agreement on this point. The teacher's question followed: "What should they have said? Think it over this evening, and then write down some conversation for them." Then came the suggestion that the boys ought to look a little more like knights, and that one ought to look like a king. How could this be arranged? Some boys offered to make wooden swords, and a girl to make a crown, of cardboard, gilded. Next a boy suggested that some kind of scenery should be made. The next morning pupils brought to school with them suggestions for words to be spoken by Arthur and Bedivere. The teacher prepared the blackboard, and gradually dialogue was built up from suggestions made by the class from the scripts they had written overnight. The boy who had made himself responsible for the scenery had brought a large piece of dark blue wrapping paper. On this he had drawn a local chapel, with its walls broken down and with a cross, minus an arm, on its roof. He had adapted something he knew well to the form of the "ruined chancel with a broken cross" of his imagination.

Everything was now ready, and the class looked forward with interest to the production on the next day. The boys chosen as actors made copies of their parts, took them home and rehearsed them. The next morning they gave a performance which, if it would not have satisfied a professional producer, gave a great deal of real delight to the children. A poem they liked a great deal became alive to them. They saw before them something to whose making they had contributed. And thus the performance meant more to them, and gave them more, than the ordinary commercial play, however capably produced and acted, could possibly have meant.

The material for dramatization is to hand in the books read by the class, in school and out. The stories of fiction and of history can be lived through in make-believe, and therefore can be acted, more or less completely. In the endeavour to write and produce drama the children will find themselves faced with the actual difficulties which have confronted the dramatist from the time when men first began to write plays. How are we to show the lapse of time? How are we to indicate the place where the action occurs? How shall we show two places simultaneously?

The discussion of these problems and the making of attempts to solve them will afford a great deal of interest. The teachers of art and of hand-work will often co-operate, since frequently they are only too glad to find projects which will give direction and purpose to their own work.

Obviously, in the classroom—and the earliest experiments will not be suited for presentation beyond its limits—any sort of staging, in the usual sense of the word, is out of the question. Nevertheless, attempts

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at costume and the suggestion of scenery are very useful helps to make-believe. Children show a great deal of ingenuity in adapting gowns and curtains to the purposes of drama. Weapons, for historical plays, can be made of wood, covered with metal foil to represent steel. Crowns and jewels can be made of cardboard, with gold foil or the coloured metallic wrappings from chocolates. The children will learn a number of excellent lessons in the art of adapting means to ends.

At first the attempts at dramatization should be limited to simple stories and historical episodes. A few among the many which might be utilized are the following:

- (a) The story of Cædmon.
- (b) Canute and his courtiers.
- (c) The coming of Augustine.
- (d) Alfred in the neatherd's hut.
- (e) The Signing of Magna Carta.

The reading of *Pickwick Papers*, *The Christmas Carol*, and *Oliver Twist* will suggest many episodes which are suited for adaptation for dramatic presentation. Dickens is particularly easy to adapt, since he was himself a dramatist, and perhaps wrote with the feeling that his characters were speaking and moving in his presence. The fact that he was a practical dramatist, too, in his early childhood, organizing his family into a group of actors who performed plays which he adapted from the few books to which he had access, should encourage both teacher and pupils.

The dramatizing of a more complicated story, such as *The Pied Piper of Hamelin* will raise many of the problems already suggested. Very clearly one of the scenes will be the council meeting, at which the piper first presents himself, and strikes a bargain. Later, the council scene will be repeated, when the piper, having rid the town of rats, finds that the council repudiates its agreement. How may we show the distress caused by the plague of rats in the first place, the ridding of the rats later on? The piper's revenge we can show, perhaps, by a dumb pageant of children following the piper. But how shall we end the play?

It will be a great day in the history of the class when something which they have created and worked on is adjudged worthy to show to the whole school, on the platform in the school hall. Everybody who has worked at the production will feel repaid. The applause and congratulations will make everybody feel that work at English studies is worth while; but even more convincing than these will be the spectacle of something attempted and accomplished, and the feeling on the part of every member of the class that he has had some part in the matter.

Literary Festivals

This is perhaps the place to suggest that English studies might gain more recognition in the school if they became the starting-point for

literary festivals, modelled to some extent on the Welsh Eisteddfod. The senior school and the secondary school alike are usually organized on the "house system", and there is keen competition in sports between the various houses. There seems no reason why there should not be equally keen competition in what may broadly be termed the "arts". It should be easy for the teachers of English, art, and handwork to meet together and to suggest the form such competitions should take, and to draw up the rules for the adjudication of entries and the award of points. If a trophy can be awarded to the winning house for the year, so much the better; but the mention of the victory in the school records and in the school magazine is often sufficient incentive. Obviously, the quality and character of the entries will be largely determined by the character of the teaching done in the classes, and the teachers of the various "arts" subjects will be expected to stimulate competitors, without bias. The public exhibition of the winning work, and the performance of the winning entries, is a possible means of earning a little money for the many things which a school always needs and for which there is no provision of public money.

Some of the headings under which competitions may be devised are the following:

- (a) An original short story.
- (b) An original poem.
- (c) An essay of given length on a set subject.
- (d) The production by the House of a drama written by members of the house.
- (e) Solo singing.
- (f) Solo instrumental playing.
- (g) Choral singing.
- (h) Drawing.
- (i) Design.
- (j) Water-colour painting.
- (k) The making in wood or metal of a specified article.
- (l) Designing and executing a poster announcing a school event.

A competition of this kind has been carried out for some years in the Hornsey County School, and has proved a direct stimulus to work in music, art, craftwork, and English. The pupils in the various houses attach as great importance to the winning of the "Arts Trophy" as to the winning of the Sports Championship.

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CHAPTER X

The School Magazine

Very directly connected with the work of the English teacher is the organizing and conduct of the school magazine. In the majority of senior schools it will generally be found advisable to have a member of the staff as editor, partly because the editing of a magazine calls for technical knowledge which a boy can hardly acquire in his early years, and partly because only in this way can any sort of continuity be assured.

The path of an editor is usually a thorny one. On the one hand, it is very difficult to make the position of the magazine financially sound, unless the parents of pupils are well-to-do; and on the other, it is not easy in a school to ensure contributions sufficiently varied and interesting to make the magazine worth producing. If the editor happens to be the teacher of English, then his work will bring him into personal touch with possible contributors. He will be able to talk to them about his wants, and perhaps, by sympathetic encouragement, persuade them to fulfil them. Part of the financial difficulty may be overcome by getting advertisements for the magazine. But the editor ought to be perfectly frank with his advertisers. The majority of them cannot hope to get back, in profit through increased trading, the cost of advertising. Their payments are practically subscriptions to the magazine funds, without hope of return.

It is well to have the magazine printed by a local jobbing printer. The editor of the magazine should endeavour to know something of the leading principles of typography, display, and make-up. It is bad policy to go to any cheap firm if the cheapness is gained by the use of bad paper, broken type, and bad workmanship. The magazine ought to introduce pupils to good typography and paper, and to the appreciation of books which are good examples of the bookmaking craft.

One of the editor's difficulties, and not the least, will come from the people who have little to say, but do not know how to say that little briefly. Members of the staff are often offenders in this respect. They write articles about their own private views, without realizing that the best way to get an article read is to make it interesting and of reasonable length. Consequently the editor will find it well to make definite rules at the start, since he will then be able to return work to contributors because it violates the rules: he is much less likely to offend them so, than if he tells them he does not consider it suitable.

The magazine should be, in the main, topical. The editor cannot hope to produce travel articles which can compete with those published in the magazines; but he can, on the other hand, produce a brightly written personal experience of a member of the school during a holiday expedition. He can produce stories and verses which, even if they are not topical in the narrow sense of the word, nevertheless present a school point of

view. Only by keeping this aim before him can the editor hope to give his magazine a distinctive character of its own.

The editor should make a point of having one or two of the senior pupils working with him as assistant editors, and of giving them all the work he can leave to them. They may learn to correct proofs, to read articles submitted and to pass them to the editor with a recommendation. They may act as special correspondents, attending school matches and other functions for the purpose of writing them up for the magazine. They should organize, too, throughout the school, a corps of class and house correspondents who will gather the various items of school gossip that are so interesting, though, as a rule, so badly reported.

Used in this way, the magazine can be made a very important part of the school life. When its approval is valued and its disapproval feared, its prestige in the school is assured. Pupils begin to read it from cover to cover. Mention of oneself in the magazine is eagerly sought after. It is high praise of creative work for the writer to be told: "That is nearly good enough for the magazine. Revise it and send it to the editor." At this stage the magazine becomes a real incentive to good work in English, and a valuable ally of the English teacher

HISTORY

BY

J. A. WHITE, M.B.E.

HISTORY

CHAPTER I

Introduction

In the days when historical instruction was limited by prescription, and by the single idea as to what a child should know of the history of his own country by the time he reached school leaving age, the teaching of the subject was from one point of view a simple matter. The main thing was to secure that a certain amount of information on outstanding persons and events should by one device or another be fixed firmly, at any rate for a time, in the pupil's memory. Geography and grammar were preferred to history, the first because of its obvious utility, the second because it was more a matter of reason than memory. As a subject for elementary school children, history was undoubtedly difficult, but the process of dealing with it was simplicity itself. The subject-matter simply had to be learnt. A good memory was of far more service than a vivid imagination. Since these days, however, the teaching of history has attained a very different status, and its value in the education and training of the child has been proved.

On the surface it might seem that history is a subject more suited to adult study than as a medium for the education of the younger child. What then are the grounds for its inclusion in the curriculum of the elementary school?

The most usual claim is, that a study of history among a democratic educated people is essential for the practice of good citizenship, and this, in the case of an elementary school child, means the realization that he is the member of a community and has to regulate his life and acts accordingly. History treats of the actions and reactions of individuals in society, and of societies upon one another; it also deals with the development of communities and the processes by which the present stage of civilization has been reached. However simple the angle from which history is viewed, the pupil is steadily, though perhaps unconsciously, acquiring such impressions as give a fuller significance to his own surroundings; and the complexity of civilized life and of the mechanism of organized society begins to be borne in upon him. The attitude of

mind thus created is perhaps the most important service that history renders to the training of youth, but the immediate value to the child is by no means negligible.

Apart altogether from training, a child derives great pleasure from the study of history, with its bewildering variety of subject-matter calculated to stimulate his interest and imagination. Another form of training to which not sufficient attention has been paid is the cultivation of the sense of beauty. To some extent it has been carried on in the contemplation of architecture, which now figures more frequently in textbooks, but music, painting, sculpture, and especially craftsmanship are less evident, a somewhat surprising state of affairs when one remembers how easily procurable are suitable illustrations for these aspects and what endless pleasure they give.

CHAPTER II

The Difficulties Inherent in the Subject

Many teachers will remember that even in the elementary schools there was a time when the story meant the political story of English history, and although what should be included in this story was somewhat indefinite, there was emerging a fairly uniform content, the process of acquiring which was simple though, from its nature, difficult to acquire. As the details became elaborated, however, the subject, as it stood, grew more unsuitable to the needs and outlook of children, and eventually it became in many cases merely the learning of textbook summaries or of dictated notes of generalized historical facts. So little did the child grasp the real significance of the statements that it was unsafe for him to depart much from the textbook formulæ, and when he did so, it was generally with disastrous consequences. Schoolboy howlers in answers to questions in history are a subject for frequent merriment. It is not difficult to appreciate the fact that this should be so. The motives and the policy of a single adult are often beyond the comprehension, because beyond the experiences, of young people. How much farther beyond the understanding of children must be, therefore, the policy of the State. The earlier periods of history are, for this reason, and from this point of view, easier to understand because the policy of the State, whatever that may mean to the children, was not infrequently the policy of an individual. But this easing of the burden is to some extent counterbalanced by another factor. It is difficult—some go so far as to say impossible—for us to project ourselves into another period where the thought and the outlook on life are different from our own. Political history must be regarded in the main as unsuitable material for presentation to children. But political history is only one thread of the subject, although continuity is easier to maintain because it follows a single process—that of State

action: there is constitutional history, an aspect which is in some ways even more abstract and more intricate than the political outline. The machinery of government is a matter which is inevitably conditioned by the circumstances of the time which give rise to its functions. That children should fail to be able to appreciate it is not surprising. Even the operation of the rules of any ordinary local society, where the immediate need can be seen by the members, often appears to cause unnecessary expenditure of time and trouble. The matter with which constitutional history deals is obviously an aspect of history which does not offer much for study by children. • But if political history and constitutional history offer such problems, how much more difficult is the religious side of history. Yet if we cut out the Christian religion from the Middle Ages, we remove the most vital factor of the period. It is difficult to imagine a history of that period without it. While we must admit, therefore, the difficulty of this aspect we obviously cannot omit it. It means, of course, that we must approach the matter with due regard to its nature and with the desire to see religion as its martyrs and saints saw it; yet nevertheless keeping the historical attitude of mind. It means, alas, the almost entire omission of doctrinal theory.

We now come to aspects of history which perhaps more nearly touch the experience of the children, that is, to social and economic history, to such matters as exploration, trade, industry, and commerce. In all these there is a large element of personal experience of a kind which is not too remote from the lives and experiences of the children: but here we are faced with two other difficulties. In the first place it is not easy to retain a proper sense of continuity, an essential factor in the teaching of history: in the same connexion the social and economic features of a given age do not all change together nor at the same rate, and this leads to a blurring of impressions; and thus, whereas the actions of a ruler, conducted as the single representative of State, can be defined and followed in consecutive order, no such definition is possible in the group conditions which go to make up the social side of an age. Take the case of the guilds, which furnish a favourite topic in books on social history. The guilds, however, functioned over a period of at least four centuries. Yet when these are described, it is not unusual to find elements drawn from different centuries. Things which were typical of guild work in the twelfth century are mixed up with activities which were predominant in the fifteenth, without any hint that different stages in the development of the guilds are being described. Again, manors and monasteries are favourite topics. In the case of manors the difficulty is even greater, because not only are the children left in doubt as to the time at which the conditions existed, but even if that is given, the description may not be true of all manors. Similarly with monasteries. Each monastery had its own procedure, and while there was much similarity in the life in all Benedictine monasteries, for example, each order of monks was governed by the rule of its founder, and each rule largely determined what the routine life in the monastery

should be. Again, another favourite topic is life in the Middle Ages, but the Middle Ages ran from the fifth to the fifteenth centuries. To what particular period in this long stretch of time does this life in the Middle Ages refer? These examples point to the extreme difficulty there is in securing that sense of continuity which we regard as essential. Such studies are excellent for forming a general background, because the details are less important provided no essential element is misplaced. Nevertheless every effort should be made to ensure that the child is informed as accurately as possible about the details with which he is supplied.

Nor is it the subject-matter only which makes history difficult for children. The terms which we must inevitably use may convey only the vaguest impressions, often perhaps quite false, to the mind of the child. The terms monk, priory, charter, and perhaps even such usual terms as knight and esquire require some effort on the part of the children before they can be used with good effect. Again, such terms as court, church, government, which have more than one connotation, are all hindrances to clarity of expression. In addition to the difficulty of historical terms is the elasticity of language itself. Everybody is familiar with the story of the boy who believed Queen Elizabeth to be a fat woman because she had been called a stout defender of the Protestant cause. As history is a subject in which linguistic description predominates, we have always to be on our guard against misapprehensions that arise from the use of language. This difficulty is further enhanced by the astonishing facility which young people can acquire in the use of phraseology which is frequently repeated, without being fully cognisant of what they are saying. This failing reveals itself whenever a class is given a subject from a book for a piece of composition and the result is compared with a composition on some familiar object for which no language has been furnished.

Then again in history we have to work on matter which is constantly undergoing modification. In other words we have to discuss statements and facts which have been modified by historical research. Let us take one or two examples. Thirty years ago children were taught facts about the battle of Agincourt, the defeat of the Armada, King Charles I, Cromwell, Protestants and Catholics, with a certainty that was convincing: to-day historical research has considerably shaken that certainty. Further, one has only to turn to the large number of "revisions" given in *History*, the Journal of the Historical Association, to realize how many of our confident ideas on things historical are founded on insecure bases.

Finally there comes the added complications of linking together world history, British history, and local history. Regarded in this sectionalized way there is small wonder that teachers sometimes feel they are embarking upon an impossible task. The work, however, in this respect is not so difficult as it would seem. As we shall see later, the main features of history are expressed in all three, so that in effect these three are one.

All these considerations would lead us to agree that history is not a suitable subject for the young. Yet on the other hand we have seen some-

thing of its potentialities in the development of the individual potentialities. The difficulties then in the teaching of history are those concerned with the selection of suitable material for elementary schools. No one would argue, for example, that the story of the life of St. Francis of Assisi, or Froissart's description of the battle of Crécy, or Froude's description of the entry of Anne Boleyn to London, or Prescott's account of the capture of the Inca chief, Atahualpa, are beyond the understanding of children.

CHAPTER III

History in Relation to the Mentality and Emotional Response of Children

Turning to the *Suggestions of the Board of Education*, we find there a concise statement as to what the history course should be expected to leave with the children in the matter of knowledge. By the end of his school career, the *Suggestions* state, the pupil should "have gained a connected and definite knowledge of the story of Britain and of the British Commonwealth of Nations, and have begun to realize the bearing of this story on everyday life, observing as he proceeds how the political, social, and industrial life of to-day and even the physical aspect of Britain are the result of very gradual changes which can be traced through many centuries. Better still, if he has also gained, as his study progresses, some knowledge of the growth of free institutions at home and overseas and some idea of the British story in the story of the world," and that "the course should always be continued to modern times".

On the interpretation of this ideal hangs the success or failure of the whole scheme. Obviously if we take the text of a book such as Ramsay Muir's *British History*, which covers exactly the ground set out in the above passage, and present it to children of 11 to 14 years of age, we are courting failure. On the other hand, by the right selection of subject-matter it is quite possible to do in a simple way all that is mentioned. It is largely a question of scale and content. A summarized statement of our aim, such as the one above taken from the *Suggestions*, has both its dangers and advantages. The danger is that the statement may remain in our minds apart from the elucidation given in its context. Then with an ideal so comprehensively stated the work may become merely a matter of committing historical facts to memory. On the other hand it has the great advantage of defining with fair precision what the scope of the course should be, which in turn should determine the selection of the subject-matter. It does not, however, indicate the exact nature of the latter, nor of the methods to be employed, though excellent suggestions on both are given in the context. It is perhaps worth noting that the terms "gained"

and "realize" are used where the term "learnt" might seem equally appropriate. But the avoidance of the term "learnt" is no doubt more conducive to a proper interpretation as to what is implied in the process of acquiring historical knowledge. Learnt is often taken to mean committed to memory, and there is a danger that in a subject like history it may be taken to mean little else; and that, as most teachers know, has been one of the great stumbling blocks in the way of making history a living subject and a vital factor in education.

Biographical History.—One of the most generally accepted principles in teaching history to children is that the biographical side of the work makes the strongest appeal to them owing to the intensely personal outlook. There can be no doubt that they have considerable difficulty in viewing things, and in expressing their thoughts, objectively or impersonally. But it is perhaps too readily assumed that because the child is interested in the personal aspect of things he is therefore attracted by *historical* biography: if that were so, Napoleon would be a more attractive figure than Robin Hood. Again, courage and cowardice, honour and deceit, kindness and cruelty, anger and pity, generosity and meanness—what may well be termed the heroic virtues with their opposites—appeal very strongly, but on personal not historical grounds. Hereward the Wake and Robert Bruce strike the imagination of the boy far more than, say, Henry II or Edward I. It is obvious that this difference in appeal does not correspond in any way with the relative historical importance of the persons concerned. But while we should not be misled in thinking that the child is very much attracted by historical biography, we should realize that it is by linking up historical facts with these personal aspects that we are able to give him some historical appreciation just at the times when his mind is best prepared to receive it. Take again the relative attractiveness as between different kinds of historical novels. The popular ones are those in which action figures most and historical details least. One of the reasons why Scott is frequently not an attractive novelist for young people lies in the fact that he strives for historical accuracy in the setting of his scenes and in the general bearing of his characters. This often involves lengthy descriptions which rarely interest the children who are swayed more by the march of events.

Dramatic Appeal.—Closely allied to this interest in the personal is the delight which young children display on reading accounts of dramatic scenes and incidents. This is shown by the fact that, despite modern tendencies to give less attention to battles and to warfare generally in the history course, it is in scenes of stress and strain that the youthful mind revels. The heroes of peace do not appeal as much as the heroes of war. Furthermore it is a common experience that children remember much more readily people who have been the centre of dramatic incidents: for example, in the minds of most schoolboys Richard I, Elizabeth, and Charles I are more easily recalled than Henry II, Henry VII, or William Pitt. Yet even in dramatic incidents it is the action which is the centre

of attraction, not the historical significance of the event. Magna Carta is remembered not for its contents or its historical significance, but because of the dramatic manner in which it was secured. Again, Wat Tyler's rebellion, so far as the child is concerned, centres on the scene with the young king and the Lord Mayor of London, rather than on the grievances of the villeins.

All this is merely stating obvious truths: but the deductions from it are not quite so evident. We may easily fall into error unless we bear in mind that it is not primarily the person or the incident which is the goal of our efforts but the historical importance and the historical significance of both persons and incidents. We may easily spend much time and give the children very much to interest them without its being of the slightest value to their training in history. On the other hand if we take advantage of this feature in the young we can introduce them to many even difficult aspects of history.

Appeal of Contrasts.—Another very marked feature about the young mind is its interest in contrasts. Perhaps insufficient attention has been given to this. In geography it has long been recognized and courses are planned to take advantage of it. Thus the earlier stories of peoples in other lands are usually confined to people like the Eskimos and the negroes. In history, teachers usually find that more interest is shown in ancient history and in the history of the Middle Ages than can be got in the subject-matter of purely modern times; and it is only in the top class of the elementary school where much enthusiasm for the nineteenth century can be created. Even with those children it is often the case that much more ingenuity has to be practised by the teacher to ensure the same attention and thought being given to the subject as would be obtained almost without effort if the pupils were taking earlier periods. No doubt the fact that modern periods are more complex, and that we have perhaps in the past tended to concentrate on political history, has been a great factor in rendering this period somewhat more unattractive. Whatever may be the cause, most teachers would agree that if a longer school life were possible the nineteenth century, at any rate, would be relegated to the final year. It is then this attraction of contrasts which makes the Middle Ages so popular with children. The people of those times lived sufficiently like ourselves to enable the children to enter into the daily life of the period: and yet there is enough difference to create that spice of interest which makes learning vital.

Social History.—This brings us to another strongly marked characteristic in the pupils' attitude towards the subject. By almost universal consent they do enjoy the study of social history, and it is by far the easiest aspect for them to deal with. No doubt this is because imagination is a strong feature at this stage, and social life is a sphere not too remote in which their imagination can have full play. Some of the difficulties in connexion with its study we have already considered, but there is a further danger. By dealing so exclusively with the social and economic back-

ground we are creating an impression, and the impressions are more important than the information which may be conveyed, that the supreme factor in history is the economic one, and that individual actions of men do not play so effective a part as the action of economic forces. To use a modern phrase, "mass production" is more effective than individual craftsmanship. But while there may be some truth in this conception for the world of to-day, it is certainly not true of history generally speaking. One example will suffice—the originator of our Christian conceptions of our duties. The truth lies, of course, in realizing that many factors are at work in history and that the economic is only one of many, although perhaps to-day the most obvious.

"Suggestions" Method.—But there is another form of historical knowledge which exercises a great fascination for the child and which until recently has received too little recognition in the history course. The *Suggestions* mentions it in the statement we have quoted, but in a form perhaps in which the full implication is apt to be overlooked. The child should have realized how "the political, social and industrial life of to-day is the result . . . of gradual changes which can be traced through the centuries." This may be taken to mean only that the child should follow the gradual development of his own community, which, of course, is the central objective of our history teaching. But if the environment of to-day is to be understood, a fuller meaning will need to be given to this phrase. The child should not only realize the gradual steps in the changes taking place throughout history, but he should become conscious of the origins of the various factors in his surroundings. Now the origins of intimate things are as attractive to children as the study of social history, and, in one sense, historically more valuable: for a knowledge of them does bring home to the child the fact that he is the heir to all the ages. Teachers and children find this a most fascinating side of historical studies. It comes as a very interesting revelation to a child that our calendar comes from Julius Cæsar, that the "Ides of March" was not a special term for the occasion, but one of the actual ways in which people even in Tudor times spoke of dates, that many of the names in the map of England are also in Domesday Book, that his own surname is not of very ancient origin, that the Romans gave us one set of numerals and the Arabs another; that £, s. d. is not an English but a Roman system of coinage and that France used the same nomenclature up to the time of the French Revolution. In this way the commonplace world becomes a world of inexhaustible interest.

Relics.—Of the same nature are surviving relics of past ages, and although some have outlived their time of usefulness they nevertheless serve to throw light on the past and to give reality to what might otherwise remain purely imaginary. Such are things like Stonehenge; old buildings of various kinds—monastic remains, castles, cathedrals, churches, old houses, and so on; old customs—maypole dancing on the village greens, May-day festivals, well dressings, and similar ceremonials.

Modelling.—Finally we have the admitted interest which the child has in making things. This, however, is so commonly recognized that we need do no more here than mention it. The actual part it should play in the history course and the extent to which the making of models can be profitably carried on will be discussed later: we are here concerned only in viewing the various tastes and activities natural to the child and incidentally what features in history are most in accord with those characteristics.

The foregoing considerations show us that despite the difficulty of history the mentality of the child is such that we can find some avenues of approach which are suited to him, and which will lead to some comprehension even of aspects otherwise beyond the range of his mental horizon. Again we must stress the point that the difficulty of teaching history to young children lies first of all in the choice of suitable material, and secondly in the selection out of it of the amount most likely to stimulate interest and effort. An overburdened syllabus with its wide scope of subjects may easily make for boredom on the part of the pupils by the condensation necessary in the teaching of the subject.

CHAPTER IV

The Selection of Subject-matter

By the time a child has reached eleven, details will form an increasing part of the story of history, and attention will be drawn to the conditions of the times in which people lived or the events took place. Thus although interest and pleasure will be the main objective, especially as it is desirable that the children should talk about things and hear and see as much language as possible, there is no reason why such material as is used should not leave some impressions of a genuinely historical character. Even with the younger people it is possible to introduce something of historical atmosphere. In telling the Bible stories, say, of Joseph or Moses or David, the teacher will add considerable interest by introducing some information about the kind of life which the Jewish people led: similarly with Leonidas or Horatius, with Robin Hood or Charlemagne. It is perhaps unnecessary to remind ourselves that in the earlier stages of the junior course the stories should be in the style of "once upon a time", and indeed legendary material should form part of the course. In compiling the syllabus the following points should be borne in mind: (1) the stories should always proceed in chronological order, and some reminder of this should be given by reference, as each story is begun, to the one previously told; (2) each story should be selected mainly for its romance, with such additions of setting as will add to its historical value without detracting from its interesting appeal; and (3) that, as in the case of the senior pupils, the

course should range through world history. If care is taken to select characters and incidents in which the conditions of the time are markedly evident in the progress of the story, much can be done even at this stage to give some general conceptions of the different stages of civilization; and a fund of information, mostly perhaps of a personal character about the individuals themselves, will have been gained. And although from the historical point of view its value may be insignificant, it will form points of contact in the child's mind when in the later stage some real historical study is begun. The teacher should only choose the more important historical topic when the details that will be selected to make up the story are equally attractive to children. This danger is the more to be guarded against where there is close co-operation between the junior and senior school.

Towards the end of the junior school course the training will become more definitely historical in character, and in the senior school the material chosen will be selected almost entirely for this purpose. Wide latitude, however, in this matter will have to be allowed, for in some schools the younger of the senior children will have little more power of understanding and realizing historical generalizations than will the children at the top of the junior schools in more favoured areas. Then again much will depend upon the teacher's grasp of the subject and his interest in it. The Report of the Board of Education on the *Teaching of History in London Elementary Schools* drew attention to the fact that in every case where history was well done the teacher was really interested in the subject, without in some instances having any special academic qualifications. It is probably true that in no other subject is wide reading by the teacher so essential to its successful teaching. A teacher who has read sufficiently to see history as a whole sees many more methods of approach, methods of approach which make possible the understanding of some portions of those aspects of history which are ordinarily considered to be too difficult for children to understand. To such a teacher also world history, national history, and local history will have elements in common, and the selection of these elements for inclusion in the syllabus considerably simplifies his work. As a consequence he will give them preference whenever they are suitable for the children. And what applies to these three categories of history will also apply to the various aspects: from whatever aspect any particular topic may be viewed there will be opportunities for linking it with others, and these opportunities the well-read teacher sees and will use if a better result is thereby attainable. Still, even teachers whose special interests do not lie in history may often make their work less burdensome and more useful and interesting to the child if, as far as they can, they seek for connexions of the kind mentioned. What then is the field of suitable material from which syllabuses of history for senior schools may be drawn?

Ancient History.—In ancient history the story of Babylon, of Egypt, of Palestine and of Persia have long been popular. Even before the days

when history became compulsory in all schools much of this was taken, in the non-provided schools especially, in connexion with the daily Scripture lesson. But with the recent explorations and "finds", interest in these civilizations has become intensified and the periods of history concerned tend to attract more attention than ever before. Added to this the British Museum authorities have produced a remarkable collection of illustrations obtainable at very cheap rates, which makes this study a source of endless delight to the young. The Greeks, too, are equally interesting and popular. Legendary Greece is now well established; but the more genuinely historical Greek features are often attractively presented; and it is becoming usual to include some of the Greek personalities such as Leonidas, Themistocles, and Pericles in the history course, and some of the more notable events such as the battles of Marathon and Salamis. The same thing applies to Roman history: schools are no longer content with beginning with Julius Cæsar: something of the growth of the Roman Empire and of its influence on the world of to-day is frequently to be found in school syllabuses. The advantage of incorporating the occupation of Britain by the Romans with the story of the Roman Empire rather than as the beginning of English history is perhaps sufficiently obvious to need no argument. And all this is not surprising, for probably no period furnishes such quantities of material which interests children and which moreover explains so many of the ordinary things of life. Furthermore it is not only in things like art and architecture that the history of these civilizations is so prolific, it is equally so in striking personalities.

Mediæval History.—When we come, however, to the Middle Ages we have an age which, in some ways, is more difficult to understand, though in this period also there are equally fascinating characters and scenes. For purposes of convenience it is well to divide the Middle Ages into two portions, each of which has quite definite characteristics. The first section runs from A.D. 450 to A.D. 1066, and we may call it the *Anglo-Saxon-Danish* period; the second runs from A.D. 1066 to A.D. 1485, and this we may call the *Norman-English* period.

The Anglo-Saxon Period (450-1066).—In this section we have the extremes of extraordinary ferocity and extraordinary piety—the barbarians on the one hand and the monks and priests on the other. Among the former we have personal examples in Attila and Alaric, and among the latter Augustine and our own Venerable Bede. At about the middle of the period we have the remarkable trio Egbert of Wessex, Charlemagne of the Franks, and Haroun-al-Raschid of the Arabs (Saracens). Later in England we get Alfred and the Danes—the first raid of the Norsemen, on the Continent as well as in England; and finally the second raid from Normandy leaving the Normans in permanent possession of our land. The daring and valour of the tribal chieftains—the mythical King Arthur comes in this period—and the piety and suffering of the monks, together with the constructive work they did in building up again civilized communities and in keeping alive the spirit of culture and learning, can all

be pressed into service.' At one time this period was one of the most troublesome to study; and the amount of effort required was far greater than its educative value. Despite all efforts to get some sort of order in the succession of leaders and their petty rivalries, the Saxon Heptarchy proved too much of a problem, and the catalogue of a succession of unimportant rulers gave way to a more possible grouping, viz. the conquest of various parts of the country and the settlement of the tribes on English soil. A further feature is also being abandoned. It was customary to surmise that the British people must all have been exterminated or driven to the west, but this is being replaced by the theory that there was a good deal of settlement of the Saxons side by side with the Britons, with their gradual fusion. However that may be, the map plainly tells us how predominant the influence of the new settlers was not only in England but again in western Europe also. Nothing in English history except, perhaps, the Industrial Revolution has left itself so clearly impressed on the map as the Saxon-Danish settlement. The barbarians in this period were no builders: they left us few monuments in stone, but they left an enduring memory in our county system, in the scores of names of places dotted all over our present map, in many of our personal names, and in the simpler elements of our language. Furthermore the main lines of settlement for the political development of western Europe were marked with fair clearness by 1066. The raids of the Norsemen were over, the great Frankish Empire had fallen into its two divisions in which France and Germany were already foreshadowed, together with the intermediate disputed territory of Lotharingia (Lorraine); in Spain the Saracen influence if not the Saracen occupation was firmly rooted. Biographically, socially, and politically then, in its broadest and simplest outlines, this first half of the Middle Ages in England should not be too difficult of approach for children, nor should it be impossible to give them easily and quickly from the map some indication as to what was happening in those parts of Europe which were immediately involved with England. Incidentally we can see here the essential need of an historical atlas.

The Norman-English Period (1066-1485).—Compared with the changes shown in the map of England during the first section of the Middle Ages, those shown in the second were comparatively few. Such changes as took place were rather in the direction of modernizing the spelling of the names. But this period, 1066-1485, saw the rise of several of the most striking features of modern English life: these were the beginnings of nationality, of parliamentary government, of municipal government and guild halls, and of the cloth industry. The period also bequeathed to us our splendid cathedrals and churches, our surnames and, last but not least, the English language. Moreover throughout the whole period we are openly and actively associated with the continent: first the Norman Conquest, then the Crusades, then the Hundred Years' War, the Hanseatic League, the Renaissance, and the Reformation. At no other period is the history of England so clearly and obviously a part of the history of

western Europe: and from no other period, except again from the times of the industrial revolution, do we get such a wealth of local expressions of the history of the period. The later Middle Ages is full of stimulating incident, and the wealth of pictorial illustration is not exceeded in any other section of history. Contemporary literature also is easily available.

It may be as well to draw attention to two features in the teaching of this period which are in danger of being neglected. Proposals have been brought forward to eliminate battles and warfare from the history lesson, but if this were done here there would be a danger of falsifying the representation of historical facts, for the mainspring of this period was founded on a *military* concept—the feudal system. The second is the question of taxation, which might with proper treatment be made a perfectly suitable subject. Time has been spent in dealing with Magna Carta, which, though important, was an isolated factor, while the continuous development of taxation in this country has been neglected. Neither are these movements wanting in striking personalities, in dramatic incident, or in social incidents of an interesting and even amusing character such as appeal to the youthful mind.

Modern History.—In the modern part of our subject it will be found advantageous to divide this section also in two—*1485-1715* and *1715 to the present day*. Some teachers deal with the second half more fully and take the eighteenth century and the nineteenth century as two separate courses. To do this it is obviously necessary to shorten one or all of the previous courses, otherwise there is insufficient time in the senior school to cover the whole ground. For our purpose, however, this is immaterial. We are concerned simply with finding suitable connected material. In the period 1485-1715 the task is simplified if we look upon these centuries as the time in which England becomes definitely modernized before making the next big change in the eighteenth century. Four features completed their changes so far as there can be completion in history—the Renaissance, the Reformation, parliamentary government, and the creation of tenant farmers and a wage-earning community in place of feudal relationships. This process was accompanied by the rapid development of two new features, the beginnings of exploration and of overseas trade and settlement and the foundation of science societies: in England the Royal Society. All these, except the Reformation and parliamentary government, are subjects which in themselves are suitable for study in senior schools. In fact it is because of these new elements and of the activity caused by the changing times that the period of the Tudors possesses so much glamour for young children. The Reformation need cause little difficulty. The doctrinal element may be omitted. A very interesting introduction can be got through a story of the vicissitudes of the Bible and the Prayer Book, *using* those books to illustrate the story. Another interesting approach is a simple account of the reason that the religion of the people was so much an affair of the government in the Middle Ages. A third method is to be found in taking the stories of the lives of Sir Thomas More and

Cranmer, and an account of the suppression of the monasteries. Concerning the struggle for parliamentary government, there are plenty of incidents and personalities and social conditions to attract any child. It would seem, however, impossible to omit the central problem. To children who take the incidents and personalities only, the contest must appear to them as one in which king and parliament were contending for the position of supremacy. And although from one point of view this puts the case "in a nutshell", the children should get a little insight into the fact that it was something much higher than a mere struggle for mastery. There is one other feature which requires perhaps more attention than is usually given: the settlement of overseas dominions with our expanding trade rarely receives the attention it should. As a consequence our relations with the Dutch and with the French do not get quite their true import brought out.

The *second* half of the modern period, that is the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, is marked by three well-defined movements and their consequences—the Industrial Revolution, the French Revolution, and the development of overseas dominions. These three dominate the whole period. But so vast and complicated are the changes rising out of them that it is the most difficult period of all in which to select material sufficiently simple and yet adequate to convey even a rough idea of its history. But social conditions again furnish much that is simple and near enough to the children's circumstances to enable them to understand. The Industrial Revolution has always been a popular subject. The changes in machinery for textiles and the consequent growth of factories and large industrial towns, the development in the breeding of cattle and the growing of root crops together with the inclosure movement have never presented any difficulty in being understood. The whole series of factory acts, and factory legislation in general, which follow the progress of industrial changes also present no difficulty when considered in relation to the conditions which they remedied. Similarly a recapitulation of sanitary conditions which existed in the early part of the nineteenth century make very instructive reading. So also locomotion, the development of medicine and surgery, the gradual changes in education, are all within the power of the children to follow and understand.

Colonial development furnishes attractive personalities and incidents. Possibly in this connexion more use might be made of the accounts of the lives of the earlier settlers and of the immediate effect of gold discoveries. But by what means we shall give children true conceptions of the foundation and capture of territory beyond the seas without introducing wars is not clear. In fact we cannot do so. In connexion with colonial affairs we shall get the secession of the American colonies and their subsequent consolidation, which may be approached through George Washington and Abraham Lincoln and vivid incidents both in the War of Independence and in the American Civil War. In this colonial section, too, it will be possible to refer to the foundation of the South American republics. The

later development of their independence and of their forms of government adds additional factors which will require very skilful treatment if we are to prevent the work becoming boring and unintelligible. In the East, affairs in India will bring in our later relations with Russia.

In linking up with European affairs and in dealing with problems in the Mediterranean and in the Far East we shall find greater difficulty. The battle of Navarino will introduce the subject of Greek independence and the decline of Turkey, and the Crimean War with Florence Nightingale and Egyptian affairs with General Gordon will continue the story. Affairs in the Far East can be approached through the war with China. But European development and the growth of colonies belonging to European nations provide a chapter in history for which no simple and suitable approach appears to be possible. It is usual to consider the life of Bismarck as a convenient figure for understanding the consolidation of Germany, and Garibaldi as pre-eminently attractive to children in the story of the unification of Italy: but although these were perhaps the most important developments, there is still to be considered the democratic movements in all European countries with the expansion of Germany, France, Italy, and Russia, and the rise of Japan, following which we have the Great War and the League of Nations. Then again, apart from all these complex movements, the events themselves are so near that any exposition but the barest recital of facts may be giving totally wrong conceptions of the actions of the various nations and of the various persons concerned.

This short and summary recital merely of the main factors in the nineteenth century is sufficient to show how difficult is the task of giving to children any adequate conception of its history, however necessary it may appear to be.

CHAPTER V

Equipment for a History Course

Textbooks.—When one speaks of a history course the mind flies almost instinctively to the textbook which will cover it. How often one hears the question, "Can you recommend a good textbook for junior, or middle, or senior classes?" and then having obtained the textbook recommended, the teacher considers the question settled. Yet for years it has been emphasized that history, in the best sense, cannot be taught from a single textbook. We may give a certain amount of historical information often and inevitably more or less misunderstood and misinterpreted: but some glimpse of historical processes and some simple view of what constitutes history can never be obtained from such a limited source, the net must be cast more widely and in many more different directions than is possible in such summarized narratives. More-

over we should avoid creating the impression that history is something which is only to be found in a textbook. The *Suggestions* contain some excellent advice on this matter in the section dealing with supplementary reading and illustrations. Of course there is no doubt that the financial limitation is largely, though not entirely, responsible for the meagre provision of materials, which is pretty general throughout the elementary schools. It also means in practice that when the teacher has once committed himself to the purchase of a set of textbooks the children are dependent entirely upon it for the remainder of their school days. The question of materials is therefore a serious one. It is enhanced by the further danger that, where there is no specialist on the staff, there is a possibility that books may be requisitioned which have enjoyed popularity, but which badly need revision owing to the changes brought about by historical research or by changes in teaching method, or have become unsuitable for other reasons equally cogent. It is important, therefore, to consider whether it may be possible (1) to make a wider selection of books available, (2) to keep the school in touch with books which respond to the changes as they take place, and (3) to provide any material which may not be subject to these changes.

In the past, elementary schools have been dependent for their supply of satisfactory textbooks upon authors who had had little or no experience in such schools, and, as a consequence, the outlook of the children has been insufficiently recognized. But the academic qualifications of the teachers are rapidly rising, and an increasing number have special qualifications which fit them for writing their own textbooks. As a consequence, the range of choice is becoming greater: though it still falls short of what it should be. When there is a wide variety no head teacher will plan his syllabus on the basis of one book. He will then do what is done, as far as possible, in some schools already: he will supply his school with any and every really good book which helps to cover the course provided to meet the needs of his pupils. None of them may be fully satisfactory for his particular purpose, but by doing this he not only secures a wider selection of books, but at the same time he does something to ensure that the children shall not be entirely dependent for their impression on books in which the views may have been rendered obsolete. Some teachers go so far as to get a copy of every book which seems specially interesting to children; and although this is rather indiscriminate, it is at least better than confining their reading to a single book or, what is the same thing, to a single series. No doubt some teachers feel that they can better control the work of the class if all the children work from the same text. But surely a rich and varied outlook is much more important than the necessity for securing complete control of all the work being done. It is essential, of course, that slackness and carelessness should be checked, but it ought to be possible to control these weaknesses in the individual without penalizing the whole by giving them a starvation diet. What is perhaps more desirable is that the different books should cover

the same periods, otherwise it is difficult to keep them together in sets. And this difficulty is being enhanced at the present time owing to the varied schemes which appear in the schools. The tendency would seem to be towards the production of textbooks which attempt to give the history of Britain and the British Empire in its world setting and to omit many of the purely domestic details. There can be no doubt that this tendency is a good one, for there are many external circumstances which have had a greater influence in shaping our destiny than some of our domestic affairs. And almost the main aim of the specialist teacher is to give, as far as time and materials allow, a justly proportioned view of the place that British history occupies in the history of the world. The difficulty of this is apparent on the face of it, and is shown in the present output of books written in series to which several authors contribute. In connexion with ensuring the satisfactory nature of the book, the publishers are assisting us by giving the name of the author and date of publication. Some publishers go further and inform us of the dates of reissue as well: this is equally essential, because a book which is dated, say, 1930 may have been first published in 1900. And in history it is most important that textbooks of long standing should be critically examined, and if not revised they should be scrapped.

Supplementary Books.—The textbook is not the only form of book required: supplementary matter is essential. This may be of two kinds: (1) monographs which elaborate in detail interesting features which the textbook can treat only very briefly, and (2) source books which contain extracts from contemporary literature, and from original material on which the textbook narrative is based. These supplementary books must inevitably become more vital to the course as the textbooks tend to take wider sweeps. They need not necessarily all be simple. If they contain vivid narratives or interesting descriptions they are equally valuable, although as whole volumes they may be unsuitable. The following five books should be made available for every school. *The Cambridge Bible*, *The Companion to Greek Studies*, *The Companion to Latin Studies*, *The Companion to English History*, and the volume of the *Victoria County History* which deals with the county in which the school is situated. These are mines of information interesting to both teacher and taught. To these should be added, in the schools of the counties concerned, the appropriate volume from the publications of the Historical Monuments Commission. But apart from these works of reference, every school should aim at building up an historical library or at least a collection of volumes which give something of the glamour which is to be found in any and every aspect of history. Too much attention should not be given to making a collection which shall simply supplement the history course. The utility motive must not be too prominent, otherwise the collection will tend to follow the characteristics of the textbook. It matters not whether the subjects be houses or furniture, palaces or cathedrals, ships or steam-engines, brasses or heraldry, painting or music or sculpture, so

long as the books are concerned with some form of human activity in its historical aspect. For children's tastes have no uniform range or common agreement, and history has food for all. Moreover books of this character tend to get less out of date than textbooks.

Pictures.—Important as books are they are not the only materials required for historical study, and this is especially so in teaching children. The printed word to them is often less attractive and less instructive than good pictures, which are therefore equally essential. As in the case of books, the teacher's attention should be directed towards making a permanent collection, but the same freedom cannot be exercised in their choice. The use of a picture is a much more restricted one than that of a book, hence it must be selected for a particular purpose. It follows, therefore, that pictures must, to some extent, have a very definite relation to the history course. Their collection must be on a different plan. No attempt should be made to get a collection covering as much as possible of the history course at the outset. Each picture or each group of pictures should be carefully chosen for a specific purpose. Many publishers are now adding sufficient letterpress to their illustrations to indicate their origin; and in this way they give the teacher some guarantee as to the degree of usefulness and of trustworthiness. If teachers would always insist upon this, it would check and finally stop altogether the production of unsatisfactory reconstructions and of purely imaginary pictures. Every specialist teacher will do well to make a personal collection. The services of such a teacher in an elementary school are very difficult to replace. Contemporary illustrations are sometimes criticized on the ground that, perspective not being understood, the pictures give wrong impressions owing to distortion. Most senior pupils know something about drawing and rarely will they be misled, therefore, by this defect. Some arrangement according to period groups, in turn divided up, is essential if the illustrations are to be readily available. The larger pictures for class purposes or for the history work of the juniors will need to be kept separately. If these are stored away they should be kept flat, as the picture wears then so much longer and is so much more readily accessible.

The Facsimile.—Another kind of illustration, the facsimile, is not much used at present, partly because very few are available. But it is possible to get Magna Carta, both the original articles with the seal and the Carta itself, with a Latin extension and an English translation. These will be found more interesting to children than a recital of the provisions. In time no doubt other documents will be available, and they are a great help towards giving reality to things so frequently mentioned but never seen.

Museums.—Some schools go even further than this, and make their own historical museum; but this can hardly become universal if for no other reason than lack of space. Neither perhaps is it desirable in normal circumstances. It is, however, advisable and indeed valuable for schools to make use of any museum that may be available, and to co-operate in

adding to its resources and in making suggestions for increasing its value to the school.

Historical Atlases.—Lastly, there must be a good but simple historical atlas for the children and a fuller one for the teacher. This piece of equipment is still conspicuous by its absence as part of the historical material which every school should possess, another inheritance of the traditional oral teaching in elementary schools. In geography it is perhaps rare to find the senior people studying the subject without an atlas; although there was a time when it was considered quite sufficient if large-scale maps for class teaching purposes were available. But history has more than tradition to overcome. So long as it was necessary only to know where a place was or what the route was in any march, journey, or voyage, the geographical atlas was considered quite sufficient: but modern methods of teaching history demand far more than that. The question history has to answer is no longer merely what took place, but what were the conditions under which it took place, and geography furnishes part of the answer: not, however, the geography of to-day, but the conditions and especially the political conditions of the world at the time of the event. This answer can be given only by the historical atlas. Moreover the practice of showing distributions by means of geographical maps has its application in historical distributions; and for these again the historical atlas is essential. It is highly desirable that the maps should be in colour. It is impossible to get sufficient varieties of differentiation with black and white maps without confusion. Where they are simple they do not convey enough, and where they convey enough they are too crowded with symbols.

Arrangement of Equipment.—Having got our equipment, the question arises as to what is the best arrangement for its most effective and expeditious use. In many of the larger schools where the arrangement of the classrooms admits of easy interchange of classes the situation is met by concentrating all the material, except the textbook immediately in use by the child, in one room; and the classes in turn go to that room for history work. Some such arrangement might be possible in small schools. It might be necessary perhaps to concentrate the materials for both history and geography, or even for history, geography, and literature, into the one room. In any case arrangements should be made for all the historical material to be together, and as far as possible the history should be taken where the material is stored. For the latter purpose cupboards, preferably with glass doors, will be desirable for the books, and sets of shallow drawers for the illustrations. Provision should also be made for the display of maps and of illustrations wherever suitable wall space is available.

Historical Novels.—That historical novels assist the study of history is unquestionable. It is equally certain that many are not historically accurate in detail. The question is rather, however, whether the general atmosphere and action of the novel is in accord with the conditions and

spirit of the times concerned, and whether the inaccuracy is fundamental to the larger conception of historic truth. Even with this latitude many novels would be ruled out. Generally speaking, however, the following authors of novels for the young appear to aim at historical accuracy as well as vivid narrative: Charlotte Yonge, G. A. Henty, Escott Lynn, H. Strang, Sir A. Conan Doyle, Stanley Weyman, and Dickens. C. W. Whistler has done some good stories of Viking times, and T. Bevan and H. Hayens have also written well for boys.

Although Scott did not write for young people there is much in his works which is intensely fascinating even for them, but they need a little guidance. There is no doubt, however, that a boy of 13 or 14, from a fairly cultured home, reads Scott with comparative ease and certainly with interest.¹

To make a collection of historical material the most essential works to acquire in beginning are, on the one hand, the big books and monographs which give the most intimate details, and, on the other, the books which are specially designed for the children. In the lists given below, the books for the children are classified as class books and books for further or supplementary reading. Most of the series recommended cover courses similar to the one suggested here, though of course none is exactly the same. The books classified otherwise than as children's books should always be available for the children. There are few books which, throughout their whole content, are beyond the older children in the senior school.

Most of the very large scholarly works such as the *Cambridge Histories*—Ancient, Mediæval, Modern, and of the Empire, are omitted. No doubt in time local education authorities will make it possible for the teachers, at any rate, to have access to all recognized works of the first rank at some central library. Moreover, local antiquarian and archæological societies issue, from time to time, publications which contain historical material of the highest value and of the most interesting and attractive kind.

BOOKS FOR JUNIORS, 7 to 11

Class Books

History Readers for Juniors, by R. K. and M. I. Polkinghorne (Bell & Sons).
Mighty Men, by E. Farjeon (Blackwell, Oxford).
The Path to History, by N. Niemeyer (Collins).
The March of History, by E. L. Bryson and M. C. Guthrie (McDougall's Educational Co.).
The Progress to History, by Richard Wilson (Macmillan & Co.).
The Foundations of History—(Nelson).
Oxford Class Books of History, by H. R. Cruise; 8 books (4 not yet published).

Piers Plowman Histories. A "Teacher's Story Book" to accompany these books is also published (Philip & Son).
Living History, by J. J. Bell (Philip & Son).
Headway Histories, by F. W. Tickner (University of London Press).
Britain and the World, several authors (Pitman).

Supplementary Reading

Days before History, by H. R. Hall (Harrap).
The Threshold of History, by H. R. Hall (Harrap).
Ancient World Stories, by G. H. Reed (Black).
Stories of Asgard, by A. and E. Keary (Collins).

¹ See also Leaflet of the Historical Association.

Children of Odin, by E. E. Speight (Marshall)
Lord's Men of Littlebourne, by J. C. Andrews
 (Harrap).

The Wars of the Cross (McDougall's Educational Co.).

Boys and Girls of History, by E. and R. Power (Cambridge University Press).

Pictures of Social Life, by E. Stevinson (Harrap).

An Imperial History of England, by G. Guest (Bell & Son).

The Story of Francis Drake, by H. R. Ford (Oxford University Press).

Man's Great Adventure, by S. Southwold (Longmans).

Stories of South African History, by Alice Jenner (Longmans).

Easy Stories from English History, by E. Wilmot Buxton (Methuen).

BOOKS FOR SENIORS, 11 to 14 or 15

Class Books

Elementary Histories, by C. H. K. Marten and E. H. Carter, assisted in Vols. III and IV by H. de Haviland. Vol. I, *Our Heritage*; Vol. II, *The Middle Ages*; Vol. III, *New Worlds*; Vol. IV, *The Latest Age* (Blackwell, Oxford).

Oxford Class Books of History—Senior series by E. M. Oliver, 4 books. Book I, *Early and Middle Ages (to 1485)*; Book II, *Early Modern History (1485-1715)*; Book III, *1715 to To-day*; Book IV, *Story of the British Peoples* (Oxford University Press).

Class Books of World History, by H. Corke, in 4 books. Book I, *The World's Family*; Book II, *The Home Builders*; Book III, *The Adventurers*; Book IV, *The Conquerors* (Oxford University Press).

Britain and the World. Book IV, *The Growth of a Nation*, by S. J. Curtis; Book V, *The Changing Order*, by F. L. Bowman; Book VI, *Britain in the Nineteenth Century and After*, by G. W. Morris (Pitman).

Britain and Europe, by R. A. J. Mears. Book I, *From the Beginnings to the End of the Middle Ages*; Book II, *From the Renaissance to the Present Day* (Arnold).

England and the Empire. Book I, *Earliest Times to A.D. 1485*, by E. Stevinson; Book II, *1485-1660*, by E. M. Field; Book III, *1660-1815*, by E. M. Field; Book IV, *1815-1925*, by E. M. Field (Ginn & Co.).

Britain and her Neighbours. Book III, *The Beginnings, 55 B.C.-A.D. 1066*; Book IV, *Lord and Vassal, 1066-1485*; Book V, *The New Liberty, 1485-1688*; Book VI, *The Modern World (Blackie)*.

The March of History. Book III, *From the Beginnings to the End of the Middle Ages*, by E. H. Dance; Book IV, *From the Middle Ages to the End of the Seventeenth Century*, by F. T. Futers and C. M. Martin; Book V, *From the End of the Seventeenth Century to the Early Nineteenth*, by W. H. McHaffie; Book VI, *Early Nineteenth Century to the*

Present Day, by A. Birnie (McDougall's Educational Co.).

A Book of English History, by Lilius Milroy and E. M. Browne. Part I, *From Early Times to 1603*; Part II, *From 1603 to the End of the Great War* (Blackie).

The Story of the People of Britain. Book I, 55 B.C.-A.D. 1485, by M. Sarson; Book II, 1485-1688, by M. Sarson; Book III, 1688-1815, by L. Hanson; Book IV, 1815-1916, by L. Hanson (Cambridge University Press).

The New World Histories. Book I, *English History to 1485*, by E. Power; Book II, 1485-1688, by M. G. Jones; Book III, 1688-1815, by A. Gardner; Book IV, 1815-1925, by L. Hanson (Collins).

The Grip-Fast History Books, 5 vols. Book I, *The Beginnings of Christian Britain*, by F. A. Forbes; Book II, *Medieval Britain*, by C. Kerr; Book III, *The Building of the British Empire*, by C. Kerr; Book IV, *The Middle Ages and the Renaissance*, by F. A. Forbes; Book V, *United Britain*, by S. Cunningham (Longmans).

A series of readers for Roman Catholic schools.

England's Story, by D. M. Stuart, 4 vols. Book I, *To the Great Charter*; Book II, *Plantagenets and Tudors*; Book III, *Stuarts and Georgians*; Book IV, *The Nineteenth Century and After* (Harrap).

State and Commons. Vol. I, *From the Beginning to 1485*, by H. Allsopp; Vol. II, 1485-1832, by R. B. Mowatt; Vol. III, 1832-1921, by S. S. Cameron (Bell).

There is an excellently illustrated edition of Part III containing quite the most comprehensive collection of authenticated pictures in any one school history textbook.

Self-Help Histories, by M. B. Syngé, J. Ewing, and C. J. B. Gaskoin. Vol. I, *Old Britain and Early England*; Vol. II, *The Normans and Plantagenets*; Vol. III, *The Tudors*; Vol. IV, *The Stuarts*; Vol. V, *The Hanoverians*; Vol. VI, *Britain in the Modern World* (Nisbet).

Piers Plowman Histories. Junior Book IV, *The Social History of England from the Earliest Times to 1485*, by J. J. Bell; Junior Book V, *The Social History of England from 1485 to the Present Day*, by E. H. Spalding; Junior Book VI, *The Nation and its Government from the Time of the Romans to 1485*, by J. J. Bell; Junior Book VII, *The Nation and its Government from 1485 to the Present Day*, by E. H. Spalding and P. Wragge (Philip & Son).

Supplementary Reading

A Pageant of History, by R. G. Ikin (Nelson).
Stories of World History, by F. W. Tickner (London University Press).

Brief History of the World, by H. H. Niver: Part I, *Ancient Peoples and their Heroes*; Part II, *Modern Nations and their Famous Men* (Harrap).

- Outlines of European History*, by M. O. Davis (Oxford University Press).
- The Foundation and Growth of the Empire*, by J. A. Williamson (Macmillan).
- The Child's Book of Saints*, by W. Canton (Dent's Everyman).
- Great Ventures*, by M. Sturt and E. C. Oakden (Bell).
- A Book of Knights*, by E. D'Oyley (Bell).
- Heroes of European Nations*, by A. R. Hope Moncrieff (Blackie).
- Saints and Heroes of the Western World*, by M. O. Davis (Oxford University Press).
- Stories from European History*, by L. Dale (Longmans).
- Stories from Modern History*, by E. Wilmot-Buxton (Methuen).
- Servants of the People*, by R. Wilson (Dent).
- Boys and Girls of History*, by E. and R. Power, 2 vols. (Cambridge University Press).
- More Boys and Girls of History*, by E. and R. Power, 2 vols. (Cambridge University Press).
- Rambles Through History and Mythology*, 5 vols. by J. A. Brendon, and 4 vols. by Donald A. Mackenzie (Blackie).
- Oxford Supplementary Readers* (Oxford University Press).
- Illustrative Histories*, 4 vols. Book I, *British and Old English Period*, by E. J. Bailey; Book II, *Mediæval Period*, by A. Kimpster and G. Home; Book III, *Tudor Period*, by N. L. Frazer; Book IV, *Stuart Period*, by J. W. B. Adams; Book V, *Hanoverians*, by J. W. B. Adams (H. Marshall).
- The People of England*, by Stanley Leather: Vol. I, *The People in the Making* (to the end of the Middle Ages); Vol. II, *The People in Adventure* (to the French Revolution); Vol. III, *The People on its Trial* (Heinemann).
- Stories from English History*, by E. C. Price (Harrap).
- A Social History of England*, by G. Guest (Bell).
- Social Life in England through the Centuries*, by H. R. Hall (Blackie).
- The Story of English Industry and Trade*, by H. L. Burrows (Black).
- Tillage, Trade, and Invention*, by Townsend Warner (Blackie).
- An Introduction to English Social History*, by H. Allsopp (Bell).
- A Short History of English Life and Labour*, by Hope Ellis (Nisbet).
- Piers Plowman Social and Economic Histories*, 7 vols., edited by E. H. Spalding: Book I, *To 1066*, by J. J. Bell; Book II, *1066-1300*, by R. H. Snape; Book III, *1300-1485*, by N. Niemeyer; Book IV, *1485-1600*, by N. Niemeyer and P. Wragge; Book V, *1600-1760*, by E. H. Spalding; Book VI, *1760-1830*, by E. H. Spalding; Book VII, *1830 to the Present Day*, by N. Niemeyer and E. H. Spalding (Philip).

BOOKS FOR THE HISTORY LIBRARY

Ancient History

- Man before History*, by M. E. Boyle (Harrap).
- A Brief History of Ancient Times*, by J. H. Breasted (abridged and edited by L. Hughes Jones) (Ginn).
- Friends of the Olden Times*, by A. Gardner (Arnold).
- The Violet Crown and the Seven Hills*, by E. M. Burke (Russell).
- Outlines of Ancient History*, by D. M. Vaughan (Longmans).
- The Story of the Iliad and the Story of Odysseus*, both by F. M. Stawell, R. Mayor, and F. S. Marvin (Dent, King's Treasury of Literature).
- Stories from Ancient History*, by E. Bowyer (Methuen).
- Roman Britain*, by R. G. Collingwood (Oxford University Press).
- Everyday Life in Roman Britain*, by M. and C. Quennell (Batsford).

Mediæval History

- English Life in the Middle Ages*, by L. F. Sabzman (Oxford University Press).
- Britain in the Middle Ages*, by F. L. Bowman (Cambridge University Press).
- History of Everyday Things in England*, by M. and C. Quennell (Batsford).
- Stories from the Northern Sagas*, by A. F. Major and E. E. Speight (Marshall).
- Told by the Northmen*, by E. M. Wilmot-Buxton (Harrap).
- Adventures of Beowulf*, by C. L. Thomson (Marshall).
- Heroes of the Middle Ages*, by E. M. Tappan (Harrap).
- The Story of Mohammed*, by E. Holland (Harrap).
- Saints and Heroes of the Western World*, by M. O. Davis (Oxford University Press).
- Cathedrals*, published by the Great Western Railway. Full of excellent illustrations.
- Abbeys*, by M. R. James, with an additional chapter on Monastic Life and Buildings, by A. Hamilton Thompson. Great Western Railway.
- Castles*, by Sir Charles Oman, published by the Great Western Railway.
- Episodes in English History* (from 55 B.C. to A.D. 1066) by A. J. Ireland (Longmans).
- The Brasses of Our Homeland Churches*, by W. E. Gawthorpe (The Homeland Association).
- The Pageant of Mediæval England*, by N. Guildford (Bell).
- In the Days of the Guilds*, by L. Lamprey (Harrap).
- The Boy's Froissart*, by M. C. Edgar (Harrap).
- William the Conqueror and the Rule of the Normans*, by Doris M. Stenton (Putnam's Sons).
- Anselm*, by E. M. Wilmot-Buxton (Harrap).

Modern History

- The Age of Discovery*, by R. Power (Putnam's Sons).
Adventures in Exploration, by Sir John Scott Keltie and S. C. Gilmour (Philip).
Hakluyt's Voyages, 8 vols. (Dent's Everyman).
Heroes of Exploration, by A. J. Ker and C. H. Cleaver (Blackie).
The Period of the Renaissance and the Reformation, by G. Home (Marshall).
England in Tudor Times, by L. F. Salzman (Batsford).
Elizabethan England, Harrison, edited by Furnivall (Simpkin Marshall).
A History of Everyday Things in England, by M. and C. H. B. Quennell: Vol. II, 1500-1799 (Batsford).
Charles V and the Rise of Modern Europe, by T. M. Ragg (Putnam's Sons).
Book of the Long Trail, by Sir Henry Newbolt (Longmans).
Builders of the Empire, by J. A. Williamson (Oxford University Press).
Queen Elizabeth and Tudor England, by J. L. Plunkett (Putnam's Sons).
Utopia, by Sir Thomas More. Translation (Blackie's English Texts).
Life of Sir Thomas More, by W. Roper (Blackie).
Blessed Sir Thomas More, by A. T. Drane (Burns & Oates).
Elizabethan Seamen, by J. A. Froude (Longmans).
Sir Francis Drake and the Beginnings of Sea Power, by J. D. Upcott (Putnam's Sons).
The Naval Side of British History, by G. Callender (Christophers).
English Life Three Hundred Years Ago, by G. M. Trevelyan (Longmans).
The Struggle with the Crown, by E. M. Wilmot-Buxton (Harrap).
England in 1685 (Third Chapter in Macaulay's *History of England*) (Blackie's English Texts).
Robert Clive and the Story of India, by R. Gatty (Putnam's Sons).
English Social Reformers, by G. Guest (Marshall).
Children of the Seven Seas, by R. Wilson (Macmillan).
The Change to Modern England, by H. Allsopp (Nisbet).
John Wesley, Through England on Horseback in the Eighteenth Century, by W. B. Fitzgerald (Kelly).
Story of the French Revolution, by A. Birkhead (Harrap).
Nelson and the Command of the Sea, by J. D. Upcott (Putnam's Sons).
Napoleon and the First French Empire, by C. R. Cleave (Putnam's Sons).
Pioneers of Progress, by S. S. S. Higham (Longmans).
A Hundred Years Ago: the Movement for Parliamentary Reform, by F. W. Tickner (Nelson).

- Joan of Arc and the Making of the French Nation*, by M. O. Davis (Putnam's Sons).
Travels of Marco Polo, Introduction by J. Masfield (Dent's Everyman).
Our English Towns and Villages, by H. R. Hall (Blackie).
Cities and their Stories, by E. and R. Power (Black).

ILLUSTRATIONS

Many publishers are now giving serious attention to the production of illustrations which will satisfy the demand for historical accuracy and also be useful for teaching purposes. The following may be specially recommended.

- (1) *British Museum sets of illustrations*—for Ancient and Mediaeval History.
- (2) *South Kensington, Victoria and Albert Museum publications*—for furniture, silver, china, ironwork, glass, tapestries, &c.
- (3) *South Kensington Science Museum publications*. Ships, locomotives, industrial machinery, and scientific development, and appliances of all kinds.
- (4) *National Portrait Gallery*. Portraits of Famous Men.
- (5) *National Gallery*. Books and single copies of famous pictures.
- (6) *The Medici Society*. Excellent reproductions of historical pictures.
- (7) *Historical Portraits with lives*, by H. B. Butler and C. R. L. Fletcher: I, 1400-1600; II, 1600-1700, III, 1700-1800; IV, 1800-1850.
- (8) *Life and Work of the People of England*, by D. Hartley and M. M. Elliott, 6 vols. (Batsford). Five vols. have been published, one for each century, thirteenth to seventeenth.
- (9) *Historical Illustrations*. Six sets, eleventh to fifteenth centuries, in portfolios. 72 plates altogether with explanatory letterpress (Longmans).
- (10) *England in the Middle Ages*. A portfolio of 36 plates (Longmans).
- (11) *Art, History, and Literature Illustrations*, edited and arranged by Jessie Noaks (Virtue & Co.).

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

- The Learning of History in Elementary Schools*, by Catherine B. Firth, M.A., D.Lit. (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., 1929).
The Approach to History, by F. Crossfield Happold, D.S.O., M.A., 102 pp. (Christopher, 1928).
History in School: A study of some of its problems by H. Ann Drummond (Harrap 1929).
The Foundations of History Teaching, by F. Clarke, M.A., vi + 171 pp. (Oxford University Press, 1929).

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- How to Compile a History and Present Day Record of Village Life*, by Joan Wake (T. B. Hart, Kettering).
- History and its Place in Education*, by J. J. Findlay (London University Press, 1923).
- History as a School of Citizenship*, by H. M. Madeley (Oxford University Press).

LARGE WORKS OF REFERENCE

- The Victoria History of the Counties of England*, edited by W. Page (Archibald Constable).
- Companion to Biblical Studies*, by W. E. Barnes, D.D. (Cambridge University Press).
- Cambridge Companion to the Bible* (Cambridge University Press).
- Companion to Greek Studies*, by L. Whibley, M.A. (Cambridge University Press).
- Companion to Latin Studies*, by Sir John Sandys, Litt.D., F.B.A. (Cambridge University Press).
- Companion to Roman History*, by H. Stuart Jones, M.A. (Oxford University Press).
- Medieval England*, revised edition of Barnard's *Companion to English History*, edited by H. W. C. Davis (Oxford University Press).
- The Growth of English Industry and Commerce during the Early and Middle Ages*, by W. Cunningham, D.D., F.B.A., xxvi + 724 pp., fifth edition (Cambridge University Press).
- The Growth of English Industry and Commerce in Modern Times*, by the same author: Part I, *The Mercantile System*,

- xxxviii + 608 pp., sixth edition; Part II, *Laissez Faire*, xii + 431 pp., sixth edition (Cambridge University Press).
- Dictionary of History*, new and revised edition by F. J. C. Hearnshaw, H. M. Chew, and A. C. F. Beales, x + 1154 pp. (Cassell & Co.).
- Historical Monuments*, by the Royal Commission on Historical Monuments in England (H. M. Stationery Office).

SOURCES

For the Teacher, and, by directed reference, for the Children

- Source Book of Ancient History*, by G. W. and L. S. Botsford (Macmillan).
- Iliad*, translation by Lang, Leaf, and Myers (Macmillan).
- Odyssey*, translation by Butcher and Lang (Macmillan).
- Herodotus*, translation, Rawlinson (Dent's Everyman, 2 vols.).
- Thucydides*, Peloponnesian War, Crawley's translation (Dent's Everyman).
- Plutarch's Lives*, translation by Stewart and Long, 4 vols. (Bell & Son).
- Livy*, translation by W. M. Roberts (Dent's Everyman, 6 vols.).
- British Museum Guides*.
- Koran*, translation by J. M. Rodwell (Dent's Everyman).
- Bede's Ecclesiastical History of England*. Translated. Introduction by V. D. Scudder (Dent's Everyman).
- Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, translation by the Rev. James Ingram (Dent's Everyman).
- English History Source Books, 449 A.D.-1887*. Twelve vols. by various authors (Bell & Son).
- Blackie's English Texts* (Blackie).
- Readings in English History from Original Sources* (Blackie).

CHAPTER VI

History Books and their Use

It has already been mentioned that history, so far as the elementary schools are concerned, was for a long time almost entirely an oral subject. An advance has been made on that position by the almost universal provision of a textbook for each child. The history reader has always been with us, but latterly its scrappiness and its sacrifice of historical fact to mere interest are disappearing, and the books of to-day are becoming, to an increasing degree, something in the nature of a textbook. They can claim to be exhibiting some sort of sequence in the ideas which they attempt to convey, and they approach more nearly the content of

a textbook by including a larger proportion of fact of definite historical value. But many of the schools can still not afford more than one history book per pupil; and until recently it has been the rule throughout the majority of schools for each class to be provided with one set of textbooks—each book in the set being the same—sufficient to supply every child in that class. So long as the work in history was merely a question of giving the children a certain amount of information or of creating some interest in the subject, the fact that they were dependent upon one book was immaterial. But now that the objective has become a wider and a more vital one, the use of only one book is a serious defect. For history needs above all other subjects to be seen from more than one angle; and even if it were desirable in any community that there should be a common outlook on the subject, there could be only one satisfactory method of accomplishing it. The State would need to enlist the services of the best historians it could discover, who together would draw up some sort of agreed outline. It is almost alarming when we consider that possibly hundreds of thousands of our children may be merely absorbing history as it appears to a single person. The claim, therefore, of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education for greater variety and better quality in books is a very modest one, and urgently demands not only the attention of publishers and local education authorities, but of teachers also. In the subject of history, as we have reiterated, a wide variety in books, even in textbooks, is essential.

The supply of a varied assortment in class creates a practical difficulty. So long as each child has the same book the work is more easily controlled. One of the ways by which this difficulty may be met is for the teacher to select different textbooks which cover the same period. From the point of view of studying the subject the strict observance of this would be unnecessary. But if the different books do not cover precisely the same period they are likely to be required in several classes at once, and with one textbook per child this becomes a practical impossibility. This plan can scarcely be adopted with the juniors, because with them oral reading and the acquisition of vocabulary will be a prominent, if not the most prominent, feature. If, as is the case at present, it be found difficult to select any number of suitable textbooks which exactly traverse the same chronological period, another method could be adopted. The class set might be made up of two or three different textbooks, and then small sets of half a dozen or more which deal with approximately the same section of work, kept for use in different classes as required. By some such methods as these the textbook version of the work can be given sufficient variety to prevent the children from acquiring merely one attitude of mind towards historical events.

It is this extra provision of books which is changing and should change the function of the teacher. So long as this supply remained meagre the function of the teacher was largely to supply the information and its interpretation himself. The change has signified itself in three stages.

First there was the time when the importance of "silent reading" was emphasized. The interpretation of this term in practice showed it to be rather an ambiguous expression, and a truer conception of its intention became evident in the increase of "private study". Finally its full significance emerged in "individual work". And although perhaps individual work and silent reading are not synonymous inasmuch as the latter may involve reading for mere pleasure, this latter aspect of the matter is becoming relegated to the reading out of school hours. The higher standard of attainment which individual work produces over that of purely oral instruction is too evident to be questioned. When each child moves at his own pace and is able to get the necessary assistance from the teacher, his education is more natural and his achievement in proportion to his ability. But this matter is so important we shall discuss the practical difficulties more fully in a later section. It is sufficient here to confine ourselves to history. In this subject the teacher's help is constantly required, for it is not only the mere information which is important; the child must be clear as to the meaning of historical language and of the ideas which, through it, the author is conveying. It is a practical impossibility for a writer to describe historical things in outline without using general terms which have a specialized meaning. Even when topics are treated in considerable detail it is difficult always to use language in its ordinary everyday sense, and at the same time to convey correct impressions.

Despite this difficulty, however, there are many forms of exercises in reading and preparation which can be profitably practised when there is a good and varied selection of books. We have first the exercises with the textbook. The least valuable exercise, unless the children have had considerable training in history work, is to tell the class to prepare a chapter. If the teacher wants merely some general impressions on the subject he proposes to take with them, they could as easily do that entirely by themselves: it is too perfunctory for school work. If, on the other hand, he does really require some definite information to be prepared in order that his wider exposition may be the more easily followed, it will be necessary for him to assure himself that they are able, and likely, to get what he requires. One way of ensuring this is to write up definite questions, the answers to which will unmistakably give the information wanted. These questions should, as a rule, be precise and limited solely to the facts that are required. Such work is valuable and a great help where information is the foundation on which it rests. Another useful exercise is the compilation of lists of events with their dates. A third exercise more useful still is for the children to find out, by using the index, what the book tells them about individuals or about movements. The most difficult of all is the preparation of a précis. The older children alone can do this adequately, and even they must have had considerable training. This will be conspicuously demonstrated if children who have had no training are given a chapter to summarize—the summary to be not more than one-third of the length of the original. Several additional exercises of an interesting

character may be practised if the members of the class are using different textbooks. One of the most exciting is to discover where the authors differ and in what respect: another is to find what the sum total of the various versions amounts to. This is a very instructive exercise: it gives the children enlarged conceptions and it shows how various topics assume different degrees of importance in different textbooks. A variation of this is to allow one boy to give a short oral exposition of what his book says, and for the others to discuss the matter from what they have read on the same subject. Then there is the possibility that the books will be illustrated. This may give rise to all kinds of discussion. Why are the pictures different? What relation do they bear to the text? Do they add anything to it? Which picture or set of pictures best enlarges the view of the times, and why? All these exercises concentrate the children's attention on the work in hand and, what is of the highest importance, provoke intelligent thought and introduce a wide variety of opinion. Moreover it is exercises of this kind which form such a valuable training in the use of books, by teaching the child how to get information from them, and by putting printed matter in its right perspective in the child's mind.

If anything in the nature of a history library has been got together in the school, exercises can be multiplied in many other directions. One of the most useful is to give some of the keenest boys the work of finding information about points which have occurred or will occur in the oral lesson, and about which the textbook and even the teacher's lesson will give little. These young people will take the keenest pleasure in assisting the work by giving to the class what they have discovered. If the teacher knows his library well, he will prevent the work of search becoming too laborious by directing the pupil's attention to some of the books where he may possibly find information on the subject which he is investigating. Even then the boy will have enough to do in searching through the pages of the books for the material indicated to him in the indexes. Besides library work of this kind, it is a good plan to give each boy a simple topic connected with the period being studied to investigate for himself each term. It is not necessary or even desirable that each boy should have a different subject. It is often better for them to work in pairs. They then tend to check as well as to stimulate each other's work.

We now come to the third class of books recommended, the history "source" book. The purpose of these is quite different from that of the textbooks or of the library books. We require the source book to supply vividness and vitality to the textbook narrative. Its function is much like the function of the picture—the picture is the visual image, the source extract a descriptive one. The accounts of eye-witnesses of incidents, or the actual provisions of a charter, especially if the language is not too technical or involved, are often more illuminating to the child than pages of objective description and explanation. Whenever he can be brought into direct contact with the thing we should avoid interposing our own words as much as possible: rather we should encourage the pupil to talk, because

his questions and comments are a surer guide to the extent of his understanding than any form of questioning by the teacher. Besides being used as illustrations, extracts from contemporary sources are the best material for some of the most valuable exercises that can be given. From them the child can easily construct imaginary scenes or compile imaginary dialogues; and for dramatization the contemporary outlook, as far as it can be obtained, is essential. These exercises are most effective in showing to the teacher how far the spirit as well as the letter of the text has been realized. Occasionally it may be possible to compare source narrative with textbook exposition, but as a rule textual criticism is neither interesting, desirable, nor profitable for children.

The last book we shall consider is the historical atlas. It is unnecessary to suggest that it should be used where any mention of places is likely to occur: and as it is difficult to imagine a history lesson for children in which no reference to any place is made, it follows that the historical atlas should be at hand in every lesson. But this is almost its least important use, though it must not be forgotten that territorial arrangements were different at different periods, so that for the mere location and extent, even of well-known areas such as France, Saxony, Naples, Venice, historical maps are essential. The map is a very significant factor in understanding some of the most salient features in British as well as in world history. Geographical exploration and settlement obviously need maps of the world as it existed at the time of the period being considered. It is insufficient merely to know what the British have done; the amount of exploration carried out by each of the other nations and the extent of the areas nominally occupied by them is most essential to the understanding of later developments; and a recital of these facts is neither as convincing nor as instructive as their representation on the map. Even matters like the influence of the Papacy, the power of Spain, the British struggle with the Dutch, the Seven Years' War, the constant antagonism between France and the Empire, are not properly intelligible without historical maps. In British history we simply must use them if the children are to visualize the Norman Conquest and settlement, the suppression of the monasteries, the inclosure movement, and similar features. Moreover the maps need to be in colour in order that the significance of the features represented may be easily seen.

CHAPTER VII

Use of Illustrations

In the category of illustration we shall include pictures, facsimiles, and local antiquities. It should not be overlooked, however, that maps and extracts from original sources are also very closely allied: but maps are conventional and therefore do not convey direct images, and original

sources being linguistic in form may be considered rather more as having the character of books. Teachers, generally, are agreed that whatever renders the study of history more concrete in its presentation is of great value in teaching children. Purely intellectual exercises are less fascinating and more difficult than those which stimulate the imagination, and as a consequence anything which assists the imagination is of first importance. Besides the fact that intellectual effort is less congenial to the young mind, the use and meaning of words is so entirely the main factor in the study of history as to make its illumination by other aids essential. Words have, to the child, chiefly the everyday meaning, and often not even that to its full extent. These words have to be applied to historical affairs where some of them have a special significance, and unless their context is carefully chosen and elaborated we cannot be sure that the correct idea or the correct image is conveyed.

Pictures.—In a previous section mention was made of the fact that a large number of picture illustrations is available: and almost every day sees their number increasing, so much so that it is becoming almost as difficult to choose illustrations as to select subject-matter for the history syllabus. In making his selection the teacher will be guided, in the first instance, by his own school course, and should delay the purchase of any that are not exactly suited to his requirements. In time he will find exactly what he wants. In this connexion there is an Illustrations Committee of the Historical Association, which is always prepared to assist teachers with expert advice on the matter. For the question—"Can you recommend me a good textbook?" has now its complementary question—"Can you recommend me some good illustrations?" And the best results will be obtained only when the teacher gets just what he requires for his specific purpose.

Much discussion has been carried on as to the relative merits of the contemporary picture and the reconstructed picture. That both have their uses goes without saying: but a purely imaginary conception, such for example, as a Saxon village, should not be accepted without some evidence that both historian and artist have been responsible for its production. The reconstructed picture normally should be taken with the juniors. Their minds are quite unable to grasp a large number of details which contemporary illustrations most often include, and their attention is apt to be held by an irrelevant detail. This makes it essential that pictures for them should be large and bold in outline and should convey little more than one big impression. Colour adds, of course, to their value, but while the colours should be fairly strong they need not be ugly. With the juniors the pictures should form the basis of the lesson. Language is too uncertain a vehicle. Moreover the child's language is precisely what most needs attention: the basis of his language, then, must, in some measure, be supplied. In history the historical idea needs to be presented in visual form in order that the language to be used may have this basis. As the child grows older, and before he enters the senior stage, his vocabulary

has grown sufficiently to enable him to follow a simple narrative in language alone, and these simple pictures then should be used only for supplementary purposes. His powers of concentration and his knowledge of detail will have increased sufficiently to make the use of composite pictures with much detail and even of contemporary illustrations possible. In using these pictures, whether with the younger or older juniors, it is necessary that the children should be allowed to make comments and to ask questions. These comments and questions are the surest indications of the extent of his comprehension.

In the senior school—for that is where the child will be after the age of 11—the pictures will have a different purpose. In the junior school, as we have seen, they form the basis of the narrative, and are used to give life to it. In the senior school they are used to recreate the historic background, to illustrate references to objects, and to train children in noting development. All this calls for greater variety, not only in the subjects illustrated but in the size of the illustration also, which may vary from that of a postcard to the size of an imperial sheet of drawing paper. Individual objects, like implements of war or articles of clothing, and similar things, may be adequately shown on a postcard, even to a class, but a market scene such as that represented in “Merrie England”, published by Bell, needs a full imperial sheet for its adequate representation. It is at this stage when the question of the use of contemporary illustrations becomes an important issue. It will perhaps be admitted that, with all children up to the age of 14, a good reconstructed picture is the better: and much time and money have been spent in trying to get illustrations of this nature. In isolated instances, where historian and artist have combined, as in the case mentioned, the result is extraordinarily good. But in most cases the element of modernity creeps in; and this, together with a certain sense of newness which the background invariably displays, robs the picture of its proper atmosphere. Whether we will or not, therefore, we are driven back on contemporary pictures, and these have been produced by the hundred. The astonishing thing is that such a large number and variety are to be obtained. With these illustrations there is always the sense that you are looking on the genuine thing: and even though it may be a subjective state of mind, it does make a difference to a child when he knows that such a picture shows incidents as they appeared to the people amongst whom they took place.

The methods employed in using these pictures will largely depend on the course. Where it consists entirely of social history, the contemporary illustrations of contemporary life will be in the main the foundation of the work. On the other hand, where social history is only the background to a story running alongside—a method which is probably the right one—these illustrations would be used mainly in conjunction with the textbook narrative. They will be shown at appropriate stages in the development and even in the creation of the dramatic story. But the pupils, having reached a more advanced stage of development, can view pictures with

more limitation. When a picture is displayed, therefore, the need for it should already have arisen in the work being done, or if not, the exact purpose for using it should be stated. Little difficulty will be found in getting the pupils to concentrate on what is wanted. Apart from this method of introducing the pictures to the pupils' notice, however, a similar attitude should be adopted with the seniors as with the juniors to encourage the children to take part in the work. It should never consist merely in the teacher expounding the picture unless it be that some definite point has been raised and the teacher is using the picture to make the matter clear. When a picture has been displayed it should be left out for a time for any inquisitive child to investigate further if the desire to do so arises. But it should not be allowed to remain displayed for any long time after its immediate purpose has been served. So far from being calculated to catch some fleeting interest among the children, it will probably lose the interest which it might arouse when required upon another occasion. We are reminded of the effect of such a practice by the fate of the old wall maps in geography. A further use of contemporary pictures is to be found in handwork and in any attempts at dramatization: for children are always keen on "getting it right", and they soon discover that in these forms of work the pictures are essential.

Facsimiles.—In addition to pictures, some facsimiles should be used. First and foremost should come some famous documents—a page from Domesday Book, Magna Carta, a Papal bull, a page from Wyclif's Bible, the death warrant of Charles I. Besides these there should be a few good specimens of the manuscript work of the scribes and monks of the early Middle Ages, and of the Flemish, French, and Italian work of the later Middle Ages. The latter are useful not only as specimens of the scribes' work, but as excellent pictures also: this is especially true of those coming to us from the Renaissance period of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The facsimile is considered in some ways more valuable than contemporary pictures. In the pictures the artist represents things as he saw or imagined them. But in the facsimile the child sees, in effect, the thing itself: and nothing seems to fascinate him so much as the real thing. It is perhaps unnecessary to remind teachers that for young pupils these documents are for illustration and not for study. Merely to see the document is one of the best means of bringing home to the child the reality of the subject. At the same time further interest will be added if the teacher will read and translate "what it says". And incidentally it is quite in keeping with the child's powers, if attention is sometimes drawn to the form of the document, or if comparisons are made, in the case of the Bible for example, with the present version of the same thing.

Local Antiquities.—Lastly we have illustrations which the locality of the school furnishes. Like the facsimiles, the historical monuments and the historical influences apparent in the customs and traditions of everyday life are history in being, and they bring to the text the vital sparks so necessary to give it a real existence.

THE TEACHERS' GUIDE

CHAPTER VIII

Handwork and History

Handwork has three distinct advantages: its general fascination makes it desirable as an aid; it is a means whereby the child's impressions of historical objects and even of historical ideas can be emphasized in a graphic form; in testing a pupil's impressions it admits of much less ambiguity than words. The first of these advantages makes it desirable to impose rather strict limits on the practice of handwork for historical instruction during school hours. So attractive is it that the child may, as a rule, be trusted to do much of it in odd moments of spare time: this is particularly true of sketching. History furnishes so many opportunities for drawing that some general directions are essential if the best and most useful work is to be done. Every drawing should have the period to which the object belonged given underneath. It should also have sufficient explanatory matter to make clear its purpose; and it should further be related to people or events of the time, e.g. "A crossbow of the fifteenth century such as was used at the battle of Agincourt: it was powerful, but could not be discharged easily and rapidly." Furthermore, if the drawings are in a book, some attempt should be made to keep sketches of things belonging to the same period together. It is obvious, however, that if each child is allowed considerable latitude in the choice of his drawings, single sheets kept in portfolios are better. Closely allied to drawings are brass rubbings. Once the technique is understood—and it is very simple—almost any senior pupil can assist. These rubbings are invaluable for supplying details of dress and armour: and the children are invariably keen on the work. The making of models is even more realistic in its effect than sketching, but it requires more preparation of material. In compensation for this, however, a great deal of reading has to be done. Children are always anxious to get the object made accurately as far as possible, and if they receive some guidance as to sources of information, they will often take more trouble than would normally be expected of them.

But there are disadvantages in all these forms of work. We must admit the great help that handwork can give. Perhaps there is no other form of work, not even vivid story-telling, which leaves such lasting impressions. But the time it takes as compared with the ground covered makes it essential that, as a principle, handwork should be excluded from the time-table periods in history. An added reason for this exclusion is the fact that the child's attention is concentrated during the actual work of making, not on history, but on handwork. The best arrangement is possibly one in which the drawing of the simple objects is left to the child's own devices, and those more difficult pieces of work, suitable either for modelling or for sketching, are carried out under the guidance of the

handwork and art teachers respectively. In the case of models well and accurately constructed, and of drawings showing unusual artistic and historical merit, accommodation for storing them should be provided and they should be kept for use in future history lessons. In time a very valuable collection of historical material can, under these conditions, be got together.

Time Charts.—There is another form of handwork which is even more important than sketching and the making of models, viz. the construction of charts. These are in fact an essential feature in the teaching of history as generally carried on in the best schools to-day with young people up to the age of 13 or 14. The most important is the time chart. To assist in getting what dates and facts are intended to give us—a sense of time and of historic reality—we have called to our aid the time chart. For pupils under the age of 14, as already mentioned, it has become essential. That fact is now firmly established as a result of some twenty-five years' experience with children in all types of school. But their use and value is much more than that of fixing a knowledge of facts and dates, and it would be a mistake to view them solely in this light. The chart is to the teacher of history something more than a first-rate atlas is to the teacher of geography. There was a time when the atlas was little more than a book of facts and dates in geography, for it indicated mainly the names of the place and its location, while giving some slight idea of the surroundings. But the atlas now conveys many more geographical concepts besides name and location: so the history time chart conveys more than the mere names and position in time. It is conceivable therefore that in the near future we shall come to regard the time chart as indispensable in the teaching of history as the atlas is in the teaching of geography. At the same time we should recognize the limitations of the chart as we already recognize the limitations of the atlas. The atlas maps, as we know, are conventional representations which suggest certain ideas. But it is only with maps of physical features on the largest scale that an accurate view of all the details can be obtained. In maps which represent other details such a view is impossible. This limitation applies to all history charts, with the added difficulty that, for our purposes, we cannot chart thought, motives, and outlook. What we chart mainly is the background—the physical features—of history on which the drama is played.

What are the features in history that can be represented by means of a chart? Obviously the main chart must be the time line or some development from it, the "before" and "after" of the junior stage, the sequence of the next stage, and the interpretation of development through change in the final stage. Charts are also very useful in enabling young people to follow a series of parallel movements, and particularly so when such movements are inter-related directly, e.g. the progress of the Hundred Years' War and the development of the French monarchy and of the Papacy. Another form of chart is one which shows development in a single sphere, such as the development of armour, of the ship, of some

branch of architecture. Development of this nature will be shown by a series of pictures arranged in chronological order and accompanied by sufficient letterpress to call attention to the changes that have taken place. Another form of chart is one in which one great movement such as the Reformation is represented by a diagram with a series of other movements springing out of it. But here again it is necessary to draw attention to the limitation of the chart—the movements springing from it rarely depend on that alone. Numbers of other factors are at work, and it is always necessary to keep drawing attention to this. As the work goes on other forms of charts will suggest themselves not only to the teachers but to the children as well, and often the child's chart will reveal the weakness of his knowledge.

Whatever the form of chart, however, it should be simple. The attempt to make it exhaustive must be steadily discouraged. It is far better to have a series of simple charts illustrating subsidiary aspects, with an indication on the main chart as to where these subsidiary movements come, than to attempt to crowd the whole into one chart. This danger is more likely to arise when the teacher, knowing some history, has himself seen a cleverly designed diagram which gives a good bird's-eye view of the subject. The child, without this knowledge, is apt only to be confused, and even if he has himself built up the chart there comes a time when the earlier stages of his knowledge have faded somewhat. He then needs something more than a reminder. He needs to refresh his knowledge, and the crowded chart is not likely to be so helpful as a simpler one. Some interesting examples are to be found in *The Approach to History* by H. C. Happold. Teachers should see also the leaflet on time charts published by the Historical Association.

In the later stages of the junior school work, when time charts are first introduced, they will consist mainly of picture charts. The pictures collected by the children as well as by the teacher will be arranged in chronological order underneath the time line. But even at this stage the numbers indicating the centuries, and the names, in big type, of the most outstanding things should also be entered. It is not desirable that much of this nature should be put in even if it were possible to do so without overcrowding. It is better to use the chart as an additional emphasis on a few really significant things.

In the senior stage each child will have his own chart, similar to the one used in class. A useful form is one in which the time line is ruled along the middle of the paper. It should consist of a space about half an inch wide in which the different dynasties of sovereigns can be represented by different colours, and the names of the sovereigns in each dynasty entered in their chronological order on the appropriate colour. The advantage of this lies in the fact that it breaks up the time line into fewer spaces than by marking it in centuries alone, and it enables events to be attached to rulers as well as to dates. Moreover there is something to be said for the contention that children more easily connect an event

with a person than with a century, e.g. the battle of Crécy is more easily remembered in connexion with Edward III and the Black Prince than with the fourteenth century. The senior pupils should be encouraged also to make charts on any special topic they may undertake—such topics as those suggested in a later chapter dealing with the syllabus of work. A good deal of time is saved if pupils and teacher can be supplied with paper already ruled with century spaces marked off. There should be no difficulty about such paper for the pupils, but the teacher's chart needs to be so large that it is probably impossible to produce a standardized form at a reasonable cost.

CHAPTER IX

The Time-table in Relation to History

One of the very real difficulties in the teaching of history is the question of the time available. The function of the elementary school has been, from the point of view of the instruction, to give a thorough training in the acquisition of the three "R's". In the past this work has depended almost entirely on what was done during school hours: few external circumstances gave any assistance. It is easy to understand, therefore, how difficult it was to find all the necessary time for both acquirement and practice of the various subjects in the curriculum, and this was the fundamental cause of the problem of the overcrowded time-table. Every additional subject had to be viewed in the same way: not only must the child be taught the subject but allowance had to be made in the time-table for his learning. Teaching and learning were more or less the same thing. Thus education assumed a school complexion divorced from real life and mainly a matter of books.

But these conditions are no longer with us except, perhaps, in the poorest districts of our large towns, and even there many additional factors outside the school, though not inside the home, lend assistance to the teacher's efforts to increase the pupil's knowledge of written language and of things. Furthermore, even in homes where any form of homework is almost impossible, the parents are no longer illiterate, and papers, if not books, find their way into all. The amount of reading done by children out of school hours now, therefore, is a substantial contribution to the reading done in school, and to a less degree, because of its character, similar assistance is being given to the practice of composition. Nevertheless the view still persists that time must be found in school hours for the art and practice of acquiring all forms of knowledge, and, as a consequence, the possibilities of a subject are largely calculated on the amount of time, in school, that can be given to them. Viewed in this way we can see how hopeless the task of teaching so vast a subject as history must appear.

Presuming one hour per week to be the average time, and forty weeks the average number in which the hour's history work appears, we get in the three years 11+ to 14+ exactly 120 hours. We have then to deduct absences for illness or other causes, breaks caused by school holidays, and the comparative infrequency of the history lesson—all of which make forgetting an easy matter—before we can estimate what a child may acquire. Under such conditions the amount of knowledge a child would carry away would be almost negligible—the question of habits of learning is for the moment another matter. If we add to this the fact that, under the older methods of instruction and with the old form of textbook, history seemed to have little practical value, there is every reason why it should be considered the least important subject in the curriculum. It is well, therefore, to bear these limitations in mind, because the extent to which external circumstances have improved in the direction of assisting the school work will vary from district to district, and this will materially affect the possibilities of increasing the facilities for history work.

The changes which have taken place externally have been accompanied, within the school, by a widening of our conceptions of the subjects themselves and by a clearer view of their inter-relation. It is becoming more fully recognized, for example, that after a certain minimum standard of attainment has been reached in reading and composition, greater progress is made in these subjects by using them more frequently to acquire and to express knowledge of other branches of the curriculum—history, geography, and literature especially—than by the sole use of artificial exercises directly designed for improving them. Again the close connexion between history, geography, and literature is being more profitably utilized, not so much by the artificial correlations, which were in vogue for a time, as by advancing knowledge which enables the teacher to make the connexions at appropriate points. This fact alone has made a wider sweep possible in all these subjects.

It is clear that the difficulty of finding more time ought not, under present conditions, to be so serious as it seemed on first consideration. In the junior school this increase in time for history will be obtained not so much by a greater number of history "periods", as by a different way of looking at the subject and a consequent change in its treatment.

Story-telling with the younger people has much increased both as a means of education and as a method for engaging their imagination in history, geography, and literature. The boundary lines separating these subjects often disappear as they should at this stage, because the child is more interested in that which feeds his imagination than in following an idea which belongs to a particular compartment of knowledge. In the story of Joseph, for instance, the best appeal is made to the children when each of the subjects just mentioned makes its appropriate contribution. Again, in a story of Napoleon, geography must obviously play a necessary part. The reason for this greater elasticity in treating the subjects is plain: young children have little background either of knowledge or of experience.

The "environment" of a story may include information drawn from various subjects, and if the child's imagination is better fostered by supplying this, it should be given, whatever may be the subject under which it is usually classified. It is only when he has acquired some experience of life, and a certain amount of this general background of knowledge, that the purely historical aspect of a story may be more rigidly adhered to. This being so, history will be found sometimes to embrace other subjects, and, conversely, other subjects in the curriculum will sometimes draw upon history. Furthermore, history will frequently be involved in the study of English. Regarded in this way rather than as a formal subject it may, and should, occupy a larger proportion of time-table time. It may be true that with a less specialized view of the subjects the tendency will be for the teacher's bent, whether in the direction of geography, history, literature, nature study, or other subjects, to be most prominent. But within reasonable limits this is surely not a bad thing. Given a sufficient variety amongst teachers' interests, matters should average out satisfactorily.

In the senior school, however, history becomes a definite subject with its own special province and its own special time. Owing to the changing attitude towards reading and composition already mentioned, the time-tables for the senior pupils in many schools are undergoing considerable modifications. It is becoming the practice to extend the time given to history, geography, and literature, and to reduce the amount given specifically to oral reading, to handwriting lessons, and to technical exercises in composition. Thus two hours a week for history becomes easily possible, and even more than this is sometimes given. But in all cases a large proportion of the time for history is devoted to reading, to the making of some kind of notes, and to the writing of answers to questions. Even the two hours a week, however, does not cover the time that may be given if a sufficiently wide view of the subject is taken. The child will do much reading himself from sheer interest when he discovers that history has many things to tell him about subjects which naturally engage his attention. Again the miscellaneous reading of novels and stories will, with a little organization, give additional aid. By such arrangements and such changes of methods as are here suggested, the child will have sufficient time and sufficient detail of a suitable character to give himself more than a passing interest in the subject.

CHAPTER X

Presentation

At one time the teaching of such subjects as history, geography, and grammar was dependent almost entirely on oral instruction. As a consequence teachers reached a very high standard in the art of oral exposition:

and the learning of the subject by the child was entirely under the control of the teacher and was confined to memorizing what the teacher told him, or to learning summaries which were supposed to form a regular part of every lesson. The advance of educational method on the one hand and the more generous provision of books on the other, rendered oral teaching less essential, and the oral lesson as the sole means of acquiring information began to receive drastic criticism. The wholesale condemnation, which seems essential in large-scale criticism reduced to simple terms, led to a swing of the pendulum, in some cases to the opposite extreme. The art of class management and class teaching was left to be picked up by experience, and attention was directed mainly to the psychology of the child. This was accompanied, as might be expected, by the development of individual methods. The surprising progress of children with whom these were tried by enthusiastic teachers, furnished conclusive proof of their superiority over class instruction by oral teaching. *Prima facie* individual methods should be more in harmony with the individuality of the children. As a principle it is true that children require individual treatment: but in groups of even 30 or 40 children, other, and different, reactions take place—some good, some bad, and these are not to be neglected. Under some circumstances children develop better when working together: co-operative work, although not the same as the old class work, is an instance. They get something which used to be strongly emphasized in the old textbooks on “school management”, viz. the stimulus of the sympathy of numbers. But they got something more definite than this: the spoken word was prevalent—in one sense, too prevalent. It may be true that the spoken word was that of the teacher mainly. The effect was, however, that the child did not pronounce words in a manner which made them unrecognizable. The teacher could be trusted to give something approaching a standardized pronunciation of all the words he used. Furthermore the constant interpolation of questions in the oral lesson ensured, in some measure, at least a verbal understanding of the matter in hand. Again, the teacher's vitality and his devices played an important part in keeping alive the interest of the children. Now these are all important features—standardized pronunciation of ordinary words, clearness of ideas as far as they went, a continued interest in the subject—and they can be secured, some of them more effectively, by individual methods: but to ensure their attainment the teacher needs to recognize the much greater, though changed, demands upon his time and energies. Good oral teaching, if followed by even a moderate amount of reading and revision, is unquestionably better than bad individual methods. With classes containing 30 or more pupils, the best methods probably are those which combine good oral teaching with a considerable amount of reading and individual work of various kinds. But it cannot be too often repeated that, where the children get little knowledge or language except under school guidance, it is of the first importance that the teachers concerned with each child should be in close touch with his

work in order to ensure that he can make, and is making, satisfactory progress. These arguments are only to suggest that oral exposition is still a valuable art in teaching, perhaps now a little too much neglected, and that individual methods have pitfalls for the unwary and serious disadvantages when not properly carried out and supplemented.

The oral lesson demands many qualities in the teacher if it is to be really successful. He must know his children and what they are capable of appreciating. He must be able to bring out the connexions of the topic under consideration with history as a whole and with other subjects also when the connexions are vital. He must have the capacity for digressing from the main theme to deal with any problem which may arise out of it without losing his thread and without being carried away from the subject altogether. Above all he must avoid, on the one hand, the language and manner of a lecturer addressing adults and, on the other, talking down to the children. The good oral lesson does not consist and never has consisted in the children sitting still and listening throughout the lesson. Perhaps the most serious defect in the oral lesson is that it tends merely to supply the information already accessible in the textbook, thereby depriving the child of a very valuable training. This may be avoided if the children are trained to get what is possible from the textbook first. The training is emphasized because they cannot do this without first having had guidance and experience in the matter. It is a good plan to write up a series of questions the answers to which will extract the salient features from the textbook version. This method answers for both the specialist and the non-specialist teachers. With the former the succeeding work will probably follow the line of linking up the pupils' work with history as a whole: with the latter it will probably be confined more to seeing that they have properly understood what they have extracted from their textbooks. Whatever form the oral work takes, however, it should never degenerate into a mere paraphrase of the information supplied in the book. There is a further danger from which even the good oral lesson is not free. In a subject like history—touching as it does the affairs of everyday life—there is always the danger that historical information, which appears to be desirable for the citizens of the present, may be given to children because of its usefulness in later life, apart from the question of its being suitable or unsuitable to their stage of development. The good oral lesson can often give the appearance of this having been done. In such cases the result is merely a verbal one and is damaging both to the subject itself and to the education of the children, and is unlikely to be sufficiently understood and retained to be of any value when the time comes for its use.

Important as oral instruction may be, however, it should be subordinate to the main aim of training the child in the art of acquiring knowledge and of building up concepts for himself, i.e. it should be used to make individual work more possible. But the individual work must be real individual work. It is useless merely to substitute for the old oral

reading round the class, to the accompaniment of the teacher's explanations and comment, the same work without such accompaniment. The teacher must either satisfy himself that the book is sufficiently simple for every child to understand without any assistance, which is improbable, or he must be prepared to answer many questions and render a good deal of individual assistance especially in the early stages. If the relations between the teacher and the class are good, the children may be trusted to ask for this assistance. But if not, he needs to be very much on the *qui vive*, for children are clever at pretending to work in order to avoid censure. Again, in the case of assignments, the work should not involve too long a time before it is completed or rather before it comes under the observation of the teacher; otherwise the unsatisfactory pupil gets so far behind, that it becomes impossible to get him to the standard which he could, and therefore should, reach.

This preparation of work from the textbook is not the only, nor even the best, form of individual work. It has already been pointed out that much more than the mere provision of a single book for each child is required if good work in history is to be done. Individual work is more correctly described when we speak of laboratory methods, the materials being books and other apparatus. Not that this necessarily implies anything very elaborate or expensive for the senior school. But it does give individual work something of a character. It is when we begin to exercise even children in getting information from various sources that real individual work begins. The details which each child acquires begin to invest the generalized statements of the textbook with some feeling of reality, and he acquires ideas which have some claim to be called his own. But the demands upon the teacher are heavy, and even with classes of average size he may well find himself unable to cope with the requests for assistance or for expressions of opinion on the work done.

Summing up, we may say that the oral lesson has its place and its value: that its main purpose is not to give that which the textbook can give, but to fit the textbook narrative into the history as a whole, and above all, to stimulate the desires, and guide the activities, of the children into further inquiry. And it is in, and through, this inquiry that the child learns how to deal with printed matter and acquires something of what we call the historic sense.

CHAPTER XI

Suggestions for a Syllabus and for the Treatment of the Subject-matter included in it

In a subject like history, where the time for teaching it is strictly limited and the matter composing it is practically unlimited, some defined course is essential if balance and proportion are to be maintained. Moreover the non-specialist teacher at least gets some ideas from seeing a syllabus compiled by a specialist: the danger in this case lies in the possibility of a ready-made scheme being adopted because it seems to conform with the latest ideas, rather than because he properly appreciates its content or its suitability for his own pupils. However elaborate and "up to date" a syllabus may appear, it is essential that the teacher should think the matter out for himself. A most attractive syllabus on which a teacher is producing excellent work may be wholly unsuitable in other cases where conditions are entirely different. And it may be well to remind ourselves that the work in history which has gained the warmest approval is based on two fundamental factors—the wide reading and interest of the teacher (his capacity for dealing with children being taken as understood) and the supply of materials. Where one or the other is missing it is courting failure to prepare or to adopt elaborate syllabuses. On the other hand, paradoxical though it seem, a syllabus that appears to be thoroughly unsuitable may in practice be productive of good work in the teaching. In such a case it is rather the language of the syllabus that is misleading. One so often sees such topics as the Reformation, the Renaissance, the Divine Right of Kings, criticized, and from one point of view rightly criticized, as being unsuitable for presentation to children of 11 to 14 years of age. Investigation may show, however, that the spheres of philosophy and thought which these movements involve enter very little, if at all, into the children's work in the subjects. It is rather their outward expressions that the teacher is dealing with. Conversely a syllabus which seems very suitable—e.g. instead of the Reformation, the lives of Luther, Sir Thomas More, and Cranmer—might be merely disconnected yet interesting stories leaving little or no impressions as to the significance and effect of the movement. Teachers must frequently be bewildered by the seemingly contradictory opinions on syllabuses which appear in books and in articles on the teaching of history. The apparent contradiction often arises from the fact that the subject is being viewed from different angles. This makes it a difficult matter to criticize a syllabus until one knows what exactly will be the teacher's procedure in working it out, and what content he had envisaged in each of the topics mentioned. There are so many avenues of approach to a topic and often so many aspects within it that we must know these before we can decide as to its suitability for the children for whom it is intended.

In any consideration of the content of syllabuses we must consider the question of social history. Some teachers approve of a definite course in social history, others say that the work should be mainly in the nature of a dramatic story with the social background introduced, but brought in incidentally. Teachers who are keen advocates of social history are rarely content, however, with that alone. It is rather a question as to whether the whole social background of history shall be covered first, and then other aspects including the actions of leading personages built upon it, or whether the social background shall be incorporated with the events as they occur. The *Suggestions* appear to incline towards the second, stressing rather personalities and dramatic incidents. This would seem to conform more to creating the right attitude of mind towards the subject. For history is not merely a panorama of changing conditions, nor a series of dramatic incidents and striking personalities. And if we confine ourselves too exclusively to the former we are likely to create a very material outlook on the subject, and if to the latter we shall omit factors of first-rate importance in their influence on national life—the guilds furnish a good example of this.

Another question on which opinion is divided is the arrangement of the syllabus, whether by reigns, centuries, or topics. Some argue that reigns tend to give more definiteness than dates and centuries. As already mentioned, the child is said to connect more easily the Crusades with Richard I, Magna Carta with King John, the Black Death with Edward III, Agincourt with Henry V, and so on, rather than with the centuries in which they, respectively, took place. Moreover centuries are too rigid, and topics are subject to other disadvantages: they overlap; they tend to cover long periods of time in which case the end is not like the beginning—the guilds is again an example of this kind of topic. In the later Middle Ages there is probably something to be said for proceeding by reigns, for in those times the king was in fact the executive head of the state, and many things did end with his death or took on a new aspect. But proceeding by reigns destroys the sense of continuity in history and makes each reign a “jumble box” of miscellaneous happenings and isolated events, and the salient movements have been largely independent of particular sovereigns—the Crusades and the break up of the manorial system being obvious instances. Generally speaking the advantages lie in the arrangement of the syllabus in topics, and that is now largely the practice. This being granted, the general principles for preparing a syllabus can be put very briefly. It should be simple and well within the capacity of the teacher and his equipment—half a dozen subjects which the children can really appreciate and which can be well done are better than a dozen which seem to cover “what the child ought to know”. In the senior stage more weight will be given to the selection of topics which are historically of the first importance, but in dealing with these the treatment sometimes will be only partial because the full comprehension of the subject is impossible at this stage. Where a teacher knows his subject he is fully

alive to all the pitfalls and wrong assumptions that dealing with history in topics is likely to involve, and will make provision for meeting those difficulties as the work proceeds.

The Junior Stage (7-11 years)

In the junior stage, that is with children from 7 to 11 years of age, there is a tendency which, on the whole, appears to be a good one, to depend mainly on stories—not necessarily always stories of people. Latterly these stories have been extended to cover the times known as pre-history, the story of the tree-dwellers and cave men and men of the Stone Age. In the *Suggestions* it is remarked that these ages should be dealt with very briefly owing to the fact that so little is known and that little is sometimes based upon conjectural evidence. One might almost go farther than this and confine these stories to the last years of the infant stage—that is to the children 5 to 7 years of age. They belong rather to the realm of myth and legend, despite the concrete evidence available on these early stages of humanity. This would leave the junior school free for stories and work that is based upon historical foundations.

Assuming the normal period in the junior school be the four years 7+ to 11+ of the child's life, and that it is generally agreed that the course should include stories from all periods and from world history as well as from British history, there appears to be no reason why, given suitable subject-matter for young people, the whole course should not form a body of ideas historical in character which would make a more intelligent study of history possible in the senior stage. But we must be clear as to what we mean by a body of ideas of historical character, otherwise we may find ourselves including subject-matter not because it is suitable for the very young but because it will form part of the work in the senior course. This would be to repeat the mistake that has so long been made in history teaching, viz. endeavouring to make pupils assimilate knowledge unsuitable to their stage of development because they would need it later on. Such a procedure defeats its own purpose, for little remains with the child except a jingle of words, with the certainty that a strong aversion to the subject has been created. What is wanted is such a selection of subject-matter and such a form of presentation as leaves the child thoroughly interested, and, as the *Suggestions* put it, with a desire to know more. To give a concrete instance: Julius Cæsar occurs in all syllabuses whether for seniors or juniors. In the majority of cases the teacher will ~~interpret~~ that as his invasion of Britain. But mass movements are not very attractive to young children. A better approach would be for the teacher to tell some of the more dramatic personal episodes in Cæsar's life, such as may be found in Plutarch. These will necessarily involve the giving of certain features characteristic of Roman life. As will be seen, this is the history that appeals to young children, but it is not the history of the invasion of Britain. With the juniors this plan should be followed in at least the years of 7+ to 9+. It matters little whether it is just the historical

knowledge we hope ultimately to get: indeed it would be better it were not, because even if the matter were suitable its frequent repetition would eventually change interest to boredom.

In the first place it may be well to consider the subject-matter in two stages of two years each. In the first of these the child is highly imaginative, and he has not yet become interested in tracing things from their origin, but his own environment does furnish him with concrete ideas which will form points of attachment with the past even where pictures may not be available. It is therefore in persons and in personal things that his imagination can most easily find scope for action. In the second of the two-year periods, 9+ to 11+, although the personal element is still the most attractive to the child he is much more critical of the matter presented and is beginning to be able to appreciate connexions, to follow reasoning, and to have some sense of corporate action and of sequence of movement; in other words it is becoming possible to make some beginning in the study of history proper. But too much stress must not be given to work needing these powers; for attention cannot be long profitably maintained. But a nearer approach to English history may be made, and more of the social background may be introduced either in connexion with personalities or as separate matter. These facts give us two alternatives. The first and most obvious is to take in the first two years stories from general history up to the time of Julius Cæsar; and in the second two years, from Julius Cæsar to the present time, with a strong emphasis on English history. A more consistent plan, however, and one not less suited to the children, would be to draw the materials for the first two years from the whole range of history, and for the second two years mainly from English history. If care is taken with this second arrangement the subconscious impressions left with the child as to the relation between English and general history will in its broadest sense at any rate be in correct perspective. One of the best means of securing this is to include, in the work of the children 8+ to 9+, stories from general history which have some connexion with English history, and, conversely, with children aged 9+ to 10+, to include in their work in English history a considerable element of stories from general history. It is necessary to reiterate, however, that as far as possible, when covering the same ground twice, quite different stories should be selected. Only by doing this will the tendency to teach history because it is definitely required in a later stage be effectively prevented. Moreover the basis for intelligent study later will thereby be made wider. In this later stage, 9+ to 11+, we may begin to use pictorial time charts.

First Period (7-9 years).—Taking our first two-year period we shall have the first year devoted to stories covering the period up to, say, the Christian Era, and the second, the period from that date to the present. For the first year we might select the subjects shown in the list on p. 245.

From such a collection of subject-matter there would be no difficulty in providing stories with historical background and suitable for children of 7-8. We have unsurpassed sources for preparing the stories—the Bible, the

Hebrew and the Ancient World.	Greek.	Roman.
Abraham.		
Joseph.		
Moses.	Stories from	
Samuel.	<i>Iliad; Odyssey.</i>	<i>Æneas; Dido.</i>
David; The Phœnicians.		
Solomon.		
Babylon.		Romulus and Remus.
Sennacherib.		
Nineveh.	Greek games.	
Daniel.	The Parthenon.	Horatius.
Rebuilding of the Temple.	Leonidas.	
	Alexander the Great.	A Roman soldier.

Iliad, the *Odyssey*, Herodotus, and Plutarch, all of which may be easily obtained. Furthermore much of this material has already been worked up in a form suitable for these young people to read; and, in addition, the interesting connexions with the present have also been indicated, as will be seen in the section giving the bibliography. But some of the stories should be prepared by the teacher himself. There must be among teachers scores of good story-tellers: yet the fact that books are available with simple narratives already prepared often causes unnecessary dependence on them. Because a book is attractively produced it does not follow that it necessarily does the work better than the teacher could do it. He should not, of course, merely duplicate the work; but few books, possibly none, cover the ground which exactly agrees with his syllabus: and as the basic material is so easily accessible he may often make up more interesting and more suitable stories than the child's book supplies.

Returning then to our collection of subject-matter we should bear in mind two things: we must keep the sequence of the stories well to the fore by constant reminders of what has gone before; we must emphasize this sequence by always doing the work in its chronological order. If this is done incidentally, yet constantly, the child almost imperceptibly gets the basis of the time chart, which begins to figure towards the end of the junior course. It will be noticed that the Greek and Roman stories are placed at the position when they are in line with contemporary Hebrew persons or events. It is advisable to take them at the same time as the contemporary Bible stories. There will probably be little difficulty in doing this, as most of the latter will be taken in the period set aside for religious instruction. It may be objected that confusion will arise in the mind of the child as to the phase of civilization concerned, but it ought not to be difficult to make clear that the people referred to lived in different countries and under different conditions. Time is much more difficult to differentiate in the child's mind than place; and the easiest way to create the idea of contemporary events is to take them together, and when dealing with one to refer to the others as frequently as possible. In this way they become permanently associated in the mind. In all this story work, whether by the teacher telling or reading the story or by the children

reading it themselves, discussion should form a regular feature. Moreover other activities will also be called into play through the handwork applied to this subject in modelling or cutting out shapes, or colouring outlines of objects, or even, perhaps, in making some of the simpler things that were in use in these past ages. It will be sufficient if, at this stage only, the more easily recognizable features in the social background are introduced either directly or through the stories.

For the second of our first two years the subjects might be as follows:

- | | | | |
|-----|---|----|---|
| I | { Alaric.
King Arthur and the Round Table.
St. Columba.
Mahomet. | IV | { Black Prince at Crécy.
Dick Whittington.
Joan of Arc. |
| | | V | Story of the Bible. |
| II | { Charlemagne.
The Arabian Nights and Haroun-al-Raschid.
King Alfred and the Danes. | VI | { Columbus and the Discovery of America.
Galileo and the Telescope
<i>The Mayflower</i> . |
| III | { William the Conqueror and the Battle of Hastings.
Becket.
St. Francis of Assisi.
Louis IX (Saint Louis). | | |

The groupings indicate that the stories will relate to different aspects of the same age. The subject of the story should be regarded, therefore, as a type, and the matter selected, while being historically important, must be suitable for presentation to young children. But whatever incidents are selected, the personal element should predominate in the description of them. What appeals to the child are the intimate personal details which he can visualize. If carefully selected these details will inevitably bring out the historic setting of the period concerned at least in its more prominent aspects.

A consideration of the items will show that each represents some salient aspect of the time from the break-up of the Roman Empire to the Industrial Revolution—the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries we can afford to omit at this stage. Together these items touch upon all the outstanding features of the period. It need hardly be said that the same ground might be covered by an entirely different selection of people or even by a selection of things. The difficulty about selecting things, which is almost equivalent to selecting social history, is that it stresses the material side unduly, and it is less attractive to the very young unless attached to people.

In regarding these peoples as personalities through whom something of the atmosphere of the times is to be conveyed, the attempt to teach historic facts appropriate to a later stage must be avoided. Attention must be concentrated upon what can be assimilated, and if for any reason the matter selected does not seem to be readily grasped and easily retained, the reason should be sought. As often as not we shall find we have been trying to teach the children something for which they are quite unprepared mentally.

Second Period (9-11 years).—As in the first year's work care should be taken that the topics are treated according to their chronological order, and that emphasis is laid upon this fact incidentally whenever suitable opportunities for doing so occur.

At the beginning of this period, that is in the work of children of 9 to 11 years of age, a simple time line for the purposes of revision should be drawn on a strip of paper sufficiently long to give at least an inch to each century from 2000 B.C. down to the present year. This line should be marked at intervals of five centuries with figures of sufficient size to be easily seen. The titles of the topics taken in the two previous years should be revised, and the names of about a dozen of the most salient should be written opposite the centuries in which they occur. A very brief résumé of these should be given before beginning this second stage of the work. No time need be spent in trying to get the children to realize that this is a time line beyond showing where, say, a grandfather's birth would be put on that line if the end represented the current year. A new time line should be prepared for the new year's work to represent the period from the Christian Era to 1485. The line should be continued some distance farther at each end to indicate that something has gone before and something comes after. They will probably jump to that conclusion from the work on the other simple line. This new chart should be sufficiently long to allow about three or four inches to the century, and sufficiently deep to allow a space of about twelve inches below the time line and also above: the object of this is to get a few striking pictures underneath each period, whether of one or more centuries, and a prominent event written boldly above the line. When the work is finished the chart should not be overcrowded and should be simple and free from complications—too few entries are better than too many. The following selection of topics might represent the course for this first year:

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|-------|--|------|--|
| I { | The Ancient Britons.
The Romans.
Caractacus. | IV { | Llewellyn and Robert Bruce.
The Black Death.
The English Language.
John Wyclif.
Henry V and the Battle of Agincourt. |
| II { | The Saxon Raiders and Settlers.
St. Augustine.
The Danish Sea-rovers.
St. Brice's Day. | V { | The Red and the White Roses.
Warwick the King-maker. |
| III { | The Domesday Book.
Henry II and his Lands across the Channel.
Richard I.
Westminster Abbey. | | |

In this selection a number of features will be evident at once. First, most of these items can be linked with the previous work: and conversely, the previous work will be brought back to the minds of the children and so revised. Then we are getting something of a connected story of English history: most of the kings, for example, will need to be mentioned at least

by name; much connected social history begins to appear. We are obviously preparing something of a background of interest. As we get nearer to the appearance of real historical knowledge the danger of turning the work into series of summaries of impossible—for these children—historical knowledge increases. Domesday Book, for example, must certainly not be a summary consisting of its origin, its compilers, what it was for, and a generalized summary of its contents. We must remember it is the intimate details the child wants—what sort of a book it was: whether William called it Domesday Book: what language it was written in: how the matter was arranged: whether the name of the district in which the school is situated was included; if so, what there was in the district, and so forth. And the teacher who is well acquainted with the subject knows how vividly the oft-recurring phrase “Wasta fuit et est” brings William’s devastation of various parts of England before the pupils. Again, many of these subjects are of such a nature that plenty of pictorial illustrations can be obtained. A few pictures typical of the period should be placed in appropriate positions on the time chart: but they must be simple and strikingly typical—figures shown in armour are good examples because each type is distinct, and definitely belongs to the period in which it was part of the usual equipment of a knight. But pictures of scenes involving much detail should be avoided: the children are too young to appreciate them properly. Considerable assistance should be gained now from supplementary reading, and a good collection of history books should be available for that purpose.

In the course for the second of these last two years, the methods of the senior school might be anticipated to some extent. For instance, it should be possible to bring home to the children the meaning of the time line. There are three reasons for this: their minds can recall a period of three or four years at least; they will have become thoroughly familiar with the use of a time line to show the order in which events and persons have appeared in history; the shorter period covered by their work makes it possible to have a line sufficiently long for an appreciable part of it to represent a lapse of time within the child’s comprehension. A little practice in placing on the time line, at appropriate points, such dates as the child’s birthday year, the father’s, mother’s, and grandfather’s years respectively, or any event where the child can realize the number of years that have passed since it took place, will quickly familiarize the pupil with the idea. Whether this special instruction in the interpretation of the time chart should be taken at the beginning or at the end of this year’s work will depend upon the type of children in the school.

For this year’s junior course the work might be as follows (1485 to the present):

I { Caxton.
The Discoveries.
Copernicus and Toscanelli.
Cabot and Magellan.

II { The Pilgrimage of Grace.
Our Book of Common Prayer.
The Armada.
Shakespeare.

III	King James I.	VI	John Wesley.
	Cavaliers and Roundheads.		Arkwright.
	The Plague and the Fire of London.		Watt and Stephenson.
IV	Sir Isaac Newton.	VII	Macadam.
	Queen Anne Times.		Marie Antoinette.
V	Marlborough.	VIII	Nelson and Wellington.
	Wolfe.		Captain Cook.
	Clive.		Stanley and Livingstone.
	George Washington.		

A selection of this kind is obviously designed to give opportunities similar to those offered by the previous year's work. Again most of the sovereigns must necessarily be introduced. The incidents, and the topics generally, will bring to the notice of the children at least incidentally all the salient historical features. They also lend themselves to the introduction of the main changes in social, economic, and political life: and they bring in the additional factor of the beginnings of the English-speaking dominions. It would be a mistake, however, merely to use these subjects as pegs on which to hang historical information. The topic itself must be closely followed in the particulars in which the subject-matter is suitable for children. To give, perhaps, the most difficult example, "Our Book of Common Prayer". This should not be used either to give abstract information about the Reformation or to cover the political events of the reigns of Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth. At the same time all these features will have references made to them. But the main work will be a contemplation of the Prayer Book. It is perhaps not unnecessary to suggest that a copy of the Book of Common Prayer should be used and that the reprint of the First and Second Prayer Books of Edward VI should also be available. A comparison of the two, in a very simple way, will lead to all kinds of questions. In the first place, why should there be a Book of Common Prayer? This opens up forms of worship and introduces the fact that worship was common not only in spirit but in form also: so we come at once to the Reformation. Again in the First Prayer Book of Edward VI we read that the service was daily, that the "Lessons" were arranged so that both Old and New Testaments were covered in one year, and that the psalms were arranged to be said so that all were covered in each month. This gives a view of Christian worship which probably not one person in a hundred has ever realized, and tells more of the Church in the times of the Reformation than pages of abstract information. Moreover it is the reality of the thing which grips the child's imagination. A suitable rendering of the Preface by the teacher will raise further questions as to the reason for a special English Prayer Book and who compiled it. The curious dating of the months is bound to provoke comment, and the Ides of March begins to get a meaning which is totally absent in the explanation that it was the Roman system of dating and meant the 15th of March. In this way the child's mind becomes attuned to hearing with understanding something about Henry VIII, Cranmer, Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth.

Intelligently treated, these topics will serve to bring out all that need be with children of eleven. They will have acquired a few clear historical conceptions and some notions of the development of their own community.

During this later stage the pupil should be given materials and opportunities for more extended reading. In expression work he should now be called upon to write simple essays in the form of answers to questions. Indeed the history throughout should be used to strengthen the child's power in the use of English both oral and written. It is fortunate that, in the junior section, stories in history and literature, which at this stage are closely allied, are the main subjects upon which the reading matter is based, and when the boy comes to express himself too much stress should not be laid upon historical inaccuracies. More important than errors of fact are errors in impressions; and these cannot be corrected by the mere rectification of an error in a single item: the whole picture needs readjusting, and this can be done only when the whole is considered.

In a course of four years' work similar to this, what may we expect the result to be? First and foremost, if the work has been rightly treated the children will have a lively interest in the subject. Secondly, they will be able to recognize some of the many great figures in history and some of the more striking features. Thirdly, they will have acquired a definite view of the order, the sequence of the main items which they have studied. Fourthly, they will have some conceptions of the way people lived at different periods. And finally they will have begun to acquire some sense of development of the changes from one condition to another. A test should reveal a wide diversity, and this in accord with child nature. When the senior work is taken the child's background of knowledge should be such as will enable him to follow the teacher and the books with intelligent interest.

Senior Work (11-14 years)

Coming to the history to be taken by the senior children, the teacher will adopt a different practice in the presentation of his subject. The historical idea becomes the conscious objective; e.g. in the stories of William the Conqueror and of the Domesday Book the teacher will aim directly at giving his pupils some simple idea of the Norman Conquest as a whole and of what it meant to England at the time and to us to-day. As to what can actually be attempted, much will depend upon what has been done with the junior work and upon the teachers' qualifications. If the junior classes have been engaged upon becoming really acquainted in a concrete way with the people and conditions of other times and not upon learning so-called historical facts, the later work can be carried to a much higher stage than has hitherto been possible. On the other hand, should this earlier study be given merely to acquiring what we normally understand as historical information, then the years 11 to 14 will need to be spent in covering the same ground and in attempting to get some reality into the subject. Again, if the teacher has no special knowledge of history he should give his attention to supplying good reading matter,

ample in quantity and varied in kind, and should confine his efforts mainly to guiding the reading of the children along lines which will eventually give them some connected ideas. But even if the work with the children before they reach the age of 11 has been well done, and the teacher has special qualifications in history, little good work can be done without satisfactory equipment. More time, too, must be given than has been customary in the past: but this lies with the head teacher, and will easily be arranged when he is quite sure that the equipment provided will ensure the time being profitably spent. To attempt to give a pupil a wide knowledge of the facts of history from a single book is the most deadening of educational processes: neither need this be done.

It is customary to think of history in general under three broad headings: *world* history, *national* history, and *local* history; yet these three properly viewed are one, and these artificial divisions should not be emphasized in any history scheme applied to children. The divisions, like the divisions in the curriculum, are for convenience, and if the separation is carried too far the tendency will be for unsuitable matter to be introduced into each division. Moreover it gives a warped conception to the subject as a whole. In history this tendency has shown itself in recent attempts to teach history, on the one hand, entirely as world history, and, on the other, entirely through local history. A serious attempt to adopt either of these practices solely will display the weaknesses inherent in both. Nevertheless these attempts do demonstrate the vital connexion there is between the two divisions. In one sense we may say that there is no such subject as national history. If we examine closely the history of England we find what a very small fraction is purely English, and even that small fraction is the outcome, partly at any rate, of contributory factors outside England. Our history is rather the history of western Europe, with its subsidiary contacts with the East and the West, as it has expressed itself in England. The obvious solution would appear to be to take world history all the time, in which case the relative importance of events would always be in due proportion. The proposal has been made that certain world-wide movements should be treated, in the schools of all countries, in a common form: but except as a suggestion this need not be considered further here. Possibly the most convincing argument against this view is that if any real history is to be understood as well as known, it must be studied on a sufficiently small scale for the child to get some grasp of it. The smallest scale apart from a purely parochial view which is unsatisfactory, is that which lies nearest to us, the history of our own community. The traditions under which we live, the habits and customs we have acquired, form a common basis of understanding which makes the national approach to the subject the most effective one. The demand for world history in place of this probably comes from the fact that most, if not all, nations have the history in their schools taught unhistorically. While, for example, nations describe at length their successes and their great figures, they say much less about their failures;

and even what is said is often modified by extenuating circumstances being given. And although such a presentation may be good for fostering national patriotism, it is scarcely satisfactory as a method of presenting history. But it is surely possible to redress the balance without making real history almost impossible as a school subject, which a purely "world" study would imply. The story of our own development would appear to be then the natural approach, illustrated by the things around us, that is, by our environment, human and material, and constantly related to the world outside our own community. Care in the selection of matter and in its presentation will do much to ensure that, so far as it goes, the child's view of the subject shall be sane and well-balanced.

Before beginning the work of the senior course it will be an advantage to devote one or two lessons to finding what topics from history already stand out in the children's minds. A new world history chart should be made out for the whole period of history. The time line should be drawn along the middle and divided according to centuries, the period dates being made a little bolder. The salient facts given by the children from world history should then be written above the line opposite the centuries to which they belong, and those drawn from British history in like manner below the line. This chart will be similar to the one prepared at the beginning of the second half of the junior course, except that the number of items entered will be greater. On this chart no further details will be entered. But some indication should be given as to which portion of the chart contains the period that is being studied during the year. The actual work of the year will be developed on a subsidiary chart. The effect of doing this is easily seen. The big chart secures the constant hold of the child upon the history as a whole while he is engaged in developing more fully the particular period that is under immediate consideration.

For the chart of the period to be studied, the following is a very useful form. Two parallel lines about one inch apart are drawn along the centre of the paper. The space between them is filled with colour, different for each period or for each dynasty, as the case may be, e.g. Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman, Plantagenet, &c. In the space is written in large type, and in abbreviated form, the names of the principal figures, such as the sovereigns, separated at the appropriate date points by thick vertical lines. A chart of this kind enables the pupils to fix events to the time, the dynasty, and to the sovereigns connected with them. The different colours have the effect of breaking up the line so that it is more easily fixed in the mind.

First Year.—The first-year course of the senior stage is tending to become a story of world history from about 2000 B.C. to the time of the Roman invasion of Britain. Unless the whole work can be made four or five years in length and the pupils are above the average in intelligence, this would appear to be the best introduction not only to the subject of world history but to English history also. We owe so much to the earlier civilizations that no adequate understanding of our own history is possible without it. We must beware, however, of attempting to teach textbook

history of this wide and foreign region to children of 11. Rather we must confine our efforts to presenting similar material to that suggested for the juniors, allowance being made for the increased age. The course will consist less of stories about individual persons and events, and more of accounts of the different peoples: Egyptians, Babylonians, Hebrews, Phoenicians, Persians, Greeks, and Romans, and their ways of living and their influences upon our world. In these will occur interesting incidents concerning individual people and events. But attention will also be drawn to those things which we owe to them and which are part of our everyday life and environment, to the debt we owe them in ideas, in language and literature, in sculpture and architecture, in our divisions of time and the many commonplace features of our own existence. Another very strong reason for taking at some stage in the senior course this preliminary work, is the abundant supply of illustrations and the very real knowledge we possess of these people, especially of the Greeks and the Romans. We know in fact more about them than we do of our Saxon ancestors, and in the matter of civilization we owe more to them than to any other people. Such a course can be made a source of real pleasure to the children, and even the older people of 14, 15, and 16 often find greater pleasure in this study than in the work on their own history. But whether the first-year syllabus shall be on these lines or not must depend on the attitude the teacher has towards the history of the English people. Many teachers with reason on their side stress the importance of certain factors in the eighteenth and nineteenth century: And if these are to be treated as they think features of such importance should be treated, it becomes a question of the time necessary to cover the whole of the senior work. Others again feel that the machinery of government should have first consideration when the groundwork has been covered, and would like to reserve the final year for history dealing with that aspect. Other alternatives, e.g. simple economic history, are also claimed as a fitting conclusion to a history course intended for young people going straight from school into some form of occupation for earning a livelihood. Enough has been said perhaps to warn teachers against thinking that there is some one syllabus or some scheme which will meet with universal acceptance. The sum total effect only can be presented, and that has been comprehensively stated in the Board's *Suggestions*. The extent to which the details can be treated and the order in which they should be presented may vary according to all the circumstances in each individual school. In the light of this then the work on the older civilizations cannot be omitted, but where it shall come in the school course must be decided in connexion with the history scheme as a whole.

We come now to the history of our own community in relation to that of the world as a whole since the Christian Era. Taking the view that world history, English history, and local history are different expressions of the same thing, we shall find it an advantage to arrange our syllabus in three columns with those headings. The middle column will give the syllabus in British history, the first will contain the great outside move-

ment intimately bound up with it, and the third will give the materials in the locality of the school which may be available for illustration. The whole period of history for this section will be divided into three—that probably being the division most frequently made in schools: 55 B.C.—A.D. 1485; A.D. 1485—A.D. 1715; A.D. 1715 up to the present day. Some schools would wish to separate the last period into two, 1715–1815 and 1815 to the present, but this would necessitate four years' work. Again, a school which desired to have a special course in the final year might find it necessary to concentrate this senior work into two years, making the break at A.D. 1603. Whatever plan may be adopted, however, it would appear impossible to miss any of the items mentioned below without leaving out a salient factor in our national development.

General History	British History.	Local History.
The Roman Empire.	Roman Conquest and Occupation of Britain.	Roman walls, encampment and roads, our coinage, alphabet, numerals, and calendar.
The Barbarian Invasions. Monks and Monasteries. Christianity.	Anglo-Saxon Invasion and Settlement.	Remains such as crosses and churches. Names on the Map. The County System. Days of the Week. Simpler words of our own language—some of our Christian names.
The Norsemen. (France and Sicily.)	The Danish Sea-rovers' Invasions.	
Feudal Europe.	The Norman Conquest and Settlement. Manors and the Feudal System.	Norman Churches and Effigies—England a single state—system of holding land (equivalent of rent). Introduction of French names—also words from the Romans through the Normans—Norman castles.
The Church.	The Norman Kings and their Relations with the Pope and the Clergy.	See above.
The Crusades. The Friars. The Empire and the Popes. The Popes at Avignon. The Hanse Towns and the Italian Trading Centres.	Richard I. King John and Magna Carta. Wales and Scotland. The Hundred Years' War. The Manorial System and the Peasants' Revolt.	Brasses in Churches. The Rise of Trading Centres. Licences to Trade. Beginnings of the use of Surnames.
The Renaissance. The Belgian (Flemish) and Italian Manufacturing Centres.	Trading and Towns. Wyclif and the Lollards.	Parish Churches. English Language. Guild Halls. Mediæval remains are very numerous for fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.
The Fall of Constantinople.	The Wars of the Roses.	

The central core of the work is that of British history, and when the number of items for one year is reduced in this manner it ought to be possible to treat each one in sufficient detail to make the subject live. More time should be given to developing a picture of the people and of the times relative to each item and less on the continuous political narrative. If the children are given, for example, such a view of the Norman Conquest and Settlement as is possible with all the illustrations and suitable information at our disposal, they will have some concrete ideas of what England was like and the conditions under which people were living. The story of the relations with the Church and with Normandy then becomes intelligible in so far as the children need to understand it. If on the other hand we describe the Conquest in general terms we have given the children words which may, or, what is more likely, may not be correctly interpreted. But the effect is not confined to the knowledge of the Conquest. Other factors which arise quite intelligibly out of the conditions have to be learnt as separate items, e.g. what are known as feudal incidents have often to be learnt entirely by a special effort of memory. If the child had been given a fairly concrete view of the conditions of life at the Conquest, the feudal incidents would appear to be the obvious way of holding society together in safety. One of the best ways of creating this concrete view is through individuals either real or imaginary. It is better, for example, to picture Bede or Alcuin living in a monastery than to talk about the monastic system; or to picture life in a Saxon settlement, so far as we know it, than to talk about Saxon modes of life; or again to set forth the probable routine of a villein throughout his life than to talk about the manorial system. The principle to observe is: in all topics and movements to avoid in the first instances the generalized statement. This should come after the individual examples.

In the case of items coming under the heading "general history" a map of so much of the world as was known at the time should be used, and if the map is an ordinary geographical one attention should always be drawn to the part of the world to which the topic applied: and better still, if the teacher is sufficiently well acquainted with his subject or the subject-matter is easily available, one or two incidents should be given to make clear either the similarity of the outside movements to what was taking place in England, or its influence upon English history; e.g. Alaric exemplifies the typical barbarian leader, Benedict is a precursor of Bede, and Gregory VII goes well with Lanfranc or Anselm. Moreover constant reference of this kind not only throws light on the general character of the movement which these people represent but it also tends to keep English history in its proper perspective. In connexion with the Fall of Constantinople, reference to that event needs to be made with more caution than often appears to be displayed. It is frequently spoken of as if it were the cause of the era of discovery. That it had considerable effect in hastening the work of discovery of new routes and new worlds cannot be denied, but its effect has been exaggerated. One of the main

causes of delay in discovery was the lack of a satisfactory compass, and the necessary improvement in this happened about the same time, and this had at least an equal influence on the rapidity with which geographical discovery proceeded after the middle of the fifteenth century.

Children should be encouraged to make their own contribution either by bringing illustrations, or by making special sketches or brass rubbings, or by noting local antiquities which serve to exemplify the life of the period concerned. The various stories read by individual pupils in works other than those common to the class, and any pieces of evidence such as extracts from original sources, should be pressed into service. By such means much enthusiasm is aroused and a large amount of detail is collected. It is essential, however, that very definite written work should follow so as to ensure that the pupils are getting clear historical ideas and not merely an assortment of miscellaneous information. A few words or phrases as reminders of summarized results must also be entered on the time charts.

It may be possible even with these first-year people to begin the collection of information on some special topics which figure in the course. Each topic may be given to a pair of children, and they should be asked to find out during the term all they can about the matter. The best of the children's efforts should be reported to the class, and one or two of the pupils, whose contributions are specially good, should themselves recount to the class, without the aid of their manuscript, what they had been able to find. Here is a list of topics which might be dealt with in this way. The equipment of the Roman soldier, the Roman legion, Roman walls, Roman roads; Saxon weapons of war and Saxon dress, Saxon names and Saxon words; monks, their ways and dress, a monastery; early English architecture, a manor, crusades, friars, games of the fourteenth century; implements of war, armour, guilds, castles. It is perhaps unnecessary to point out how much the work in English benefits by these exercises; and a surprising amount of information on the history of the period is got together in information which, in range and variety, is quite beyond acquisition by any ordinary classroom methods.

Second Year.—The second year's course might be taken from the list of subjects given on the opposite page.

Tudor Period.—The Tudor period has always been a popular one with children and one can well understand why this should be so. It is a time of changes—and of changes which touch the children's lives very closely and which appeal strongly to the children's emotions. On the one hand it is the time of adventure par excellence. Nothing in the Middle Ages can exceed the wonders opened up by the discoveries of new worlds, and the remarkable rewards for daring and courage. Drake and his adventures in the Spanish Main are the stock-in-trade of many a popular boy's book. But Prescott's *Conquest of Mexico* and also his *Conquest of Peru* furnish still more amazing incidents of the cruelty and of the extraordinary success of the Spanish buccaneers. Of course the novels as a whole are too difficult

General History	British History.	Local History.
Discoveries — Portugal, Spain, France, the Dutch, the Danes.	Discoveries, Scientific and Geographical.	
	Tudor England.	Tudor Architecture.
The Reformation and the Counter-reformation. Dutch Independence and rapid development of sea-trading.	The Renaissance and the Reformation in England.	Parish Registers begin.
The Thirty Years' War.	Parliament and the Stuart Kings—the Final Settlement. Development of Agriculture, of Science, and of Industry. Nonconformists.	Renaissance Architecture. Jacobean Furniture.
Louis XIV. Frederick the Great Peter the Great.	England and France and the early American Colonies.	Queen Anne Furniture and Plate.

for people of 12 or 13, but the more striking incidents are easily within their understanding when read by the teacher. The attractiveness of material of this kind will not be questioned. But there are other changes which, though less thrilling, are vital factors in making the period easily understood, yet without the monotony that ordinary life acquires when it becomes too much like our own. Social life especially among the merchants and traders and the commercial classes generally took a leap upwards beyond anything that had ever taken place in English history before. In literature the age surpassed, and in Shakespeare still surpasses, anything since the culture of Greece and Rome. Such things as houses, wages, and poor relief, and the general structure of society in its economic aspect, became very much what it is to-day—Elizabethan houses and palaces, for example, are marked features of the landscape in various parts of the country. Adventure and change then give to the sixteenth century a unity for teaching purposes which is scarcely possible in any other century; and these are just the elements which appeal to children and which should therefore be brought out. It is perhaps necessary to repeat what has already been said about the treatment of movements. From the child's point of view there is decidedly a right and a wrong way of presenting subjects like the Renaissance and the Reformation. So often it would appear, from criticisms that are made, that lessons on subjects like these become merely a series of generalized statements as to what they were as movements. It cannot be too often repeated that it is not the movement, but the concrete evidences of the movement which should be presented to children. No doubt we all subconsciously suffer from the examination

state of mind, and such questions as "What do you know about the Reformation?" seem to call for the answer to be given to the children. Apart from the fact that such questions are entirely unsuitable even for people of 15 or 16, much more so for children of 12 or 13, we should disregard possible examination questions altogether and concentrate on fundamental knowledge. A child is more interested in how the New Testament was first turned into English from the original Greek, or how the Authorized Version of the Bible came into being, or how King Henry VIII arranged that everybody should hear the Bible read in English, or that an act was passed to "prevent diversity of opinion". These are fundamental things and form the material of which the more generalized form is made up. There is a tendency at the present time to dwell with much less stress on the Marian persecution and to point out that Catholics and Protestants suffered equally when monarchs of the opposite persuasion occupied the throne. But the cases were not exactly parallel. In the reign of Queen Mary, Protestants were executed for holding heretical opinions, whereas in the reign of Queen Elizabeth high treason began to enter into the offence. She was excommunicated by the Catholic Church, hence allegiance might be withdrawn. Possibly, however, some justification of both may be found in the fact that religion and the State were still closely intertwined, and the wit of man had not yet devised a means by which politics and religion for practical purposes could be regarded separately, despite the injunction "render therefore unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's".

Seventeenth Century.—In the seventeenth century the unifying features are much less congenial to the outlook of children than those of the sixteenth. The dominating issue is the question of the position of parliament in the framework of government. The constitutional question and the fact that the previous century is intensely interesting has, perhaps, tended to overshadow the real interest which children can find in this period. Abroad there were particularly important developments. At the beginning of the century the Dutch were by far the largest sea-traders. Germany was ruined by the Thirty Years' War, thus causing considerable distress in England. France was doing remarkable things in every department, and in fact became the leader of Europe socially. She was also making rapid strides in the colonization of North America, and was acquiring very considerable influence in the East. Four remarkable characters of this century stand out—Louis XIV (1643–1715), Gustavus Adolphus (1594–1632), Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, the collector of big grenadiers (1640–88), and Peter the Great of Russia (1672–1725). At home, too, were many interesting developments. The Roundheads and Cavaliers we have always had, but we have given insufficient attention to the rapid improvements in architecture and in home comforts, especially in the matter of furniture and dress. The century, too, had its quota of adventure, for the navy of this time furnishes a very interesting study even though at times depressing. It is the period

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also of great diarists and writers on public affairs, Clarendon, Pepys, Evelyn, Dryden, Defoe, and Swift; and although much of what they write is beyond the range of children's mentality there are many sketches of men and events which make very attractive reading. Clarendon is not drawn upon so much as his gifts of portrayal entitle him to be. Then we have above all the incomparable description of England near the end of the seventeenth century given in the third chapter of Macaulay's *History of England*. Again the Great Plague and the Fire of London never fail to evoke response. Nor must we forget the lively music with its rollicking rhythm so fascinating in its appeal to the emotions of the young. Indeed a very good case could be made out for the greater interest of the seventeenth century over the sixteenth. Despite its many interesting features, however, the constitutional question is the chief aspect of this century. Its presentation seems, therefore, to be necessary, and in accordance with our principle it should be made through incidents and people and not through constitutional theory. Moreover a clearer conception is gained if the incidents are continued in sequence up to the Act of Settlement, which was the real conclusion of the struggle. So far as the "glorious revolution" was concerned, that was over in 1649. James II made a good attempt to reverse the decision but without success. When we come to the times of Queen Anne, Marlborough still remains the outstanding figure and the battle of Blenheim perhaps the commanding event. Malplaquet deserves more attention than it receives, for it indicates the beginning of the recovery of France, inasmuch as the allies lost heavily in casualties against a French army which consisted mainly of raw recruits. But perhaps more important from our point of view were the happenings in America, which ended in the acquisition of Nova Scotia by the Treaty of Utrecht. From this point began that long contest with France which ended at Trafalgar and Waterloo.

It is perhaps unnecessary to remind ourselves that local evidences of this period can be found everywhere, though the old parish church is still the best. The two centuries offer also a large variety of subjects suitable for simple investigation by individual pupils. The same procedure can be followed as in the first year. Here is a list of topics on which information could be easily collected. Such information would materially enhance the value of the course. The Story of the Book of Common Prayer; Versions of the Bible; Ships of War; The Spanish Main; The Navy; Pirates; Firearms in Tudor and Stuart Times; Changes in Dress; Draining the Fens; London at the Time of the Great Plague; Jacobean Houses; Jacobean Furniture; Queen Anne Furniture; Navigation Acts; Changes in Food; Textile Areas in the Seventeenth Centuries; Huguenots; Sir Christopher Wren and St. Paul's Cathedral; The Geographical Discoveries and Settlements of the Nations of Western Europe in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries; Jesuits and their Work.

The final period is the most difficult, and very large omissions, mainly on the political side, will have to be made. The matter is perhaps some-

what simplified by the fact that for us there are the three dominating movements: oversea settlement, the industrial and agricultural revolutions, and the French Revolution. But the results of those movements have been world-wide and as a consequence only some of those results can be given. A further obstacle in the way of a satisfactory presentation of the period is its nearness to ourselves. This makes our views much less permanent, even when we know such facts as can be known, than they will be when we are sufficiently far removed from them to see them in truer perspective. The following topics are at any rate possible:

General History	British History	Local History
Rise of Prussia and Russia and the Complementary Decline of Austria and Turkey.	King George I and Walpole. England and France in America and India. War of American Independence. Beginnings of Australia.	
The French Revolution. The Formation of the South American Republics. Congresses. American Civil War.	The Industrial and the Agricultural Revolutions. Science. John Wesley. Humanitarian Movement. The French Revolution.	The evidence of the eighteenth century in inclosure of the common fields and the growth of industrial towns and villages, and the development of means of locomotion and communication are all obvious; but they will need pointing out nevertheless. The more permanent a feature seems the more necessary it is to give some idea of its origin.
Bismarck and Germany.	Wars in India.	
Cavour and Italian Unity.	Social and Constitutional Changes.	
	The Eastern Mediterranean and the Crimean War. The Far East.	
	European Emigration and the Partition of Africa. The World War and the League of Nations.	

The Eighteenth Century.—The first half of the period, i.e. the eighteenth century, is not impossible, and if we omit the political squabbles it is fairly simple for young people to grasp in outline. Externally the powers of Britain were concentrated on the contest with France and internally on the changes in industry, commerce, and agriculture, and the problems arising out of

these changes. In the sphere of government the fundamental antagonisms between the crown and parliament were settled, and the inability of the king to converse easily in the English language led to the establishment of the premiership, thus giving to parliament complete control of legislation, the veto excepted. It is for this reason that Walpole should be given a special place.

The presentation of the development of overseas dominions in this century needs perhaps a little discussion. It has been customary to talk of the battle of Plassey and the capture of Quebec as though they were the final strokes in the conquest of India and the conquest of Canada respectively. It is true that the battle of Plassey was probably the greatest factor in establishing our prestige in India, and that the capture of Quebec was of vital importance in securing Canada's cession. But they were steps only: and the fact that France believed her interests to lie in Europe led to half-hearted attempts by the French government to retain possession, which was not without influence in rendering our task easier than it might have been. The capture of Quebec was a great triumph for Wolfe. But a greater triumph has been achieved by successive British governments than was accomplished in the conquest of Canada: a large French and French-speaking population has been happily and successfully absorbed by the British people. But even this was partly due to the fact that to the south of them was a much larger group of independent English colonists than they were. And their hostility against them was greater than that against the British government. The later development of Canada is probably best dealt with immediately after the War of American Independence, and a brief summary the best form in which to present the matter. There is, however, no lack of suitable incidents for children's appreciation even in the later development of Canada. The *Suggestions* state that the gift of free institutions to the Dominions should not be lost sight of. During the eighteenth century, and before the French Revolution, England was free from foreign entanglement of first-class importance; and colonies—American colonies—loom so large that the procedure mentioned becomes a very desirable one, as it removes this later Canadian history out of the many complications of the nineteenth century which occurred at the same time. Since Africa and Australia and New Zealand belong almost entirely to the nineteenth century, a short summary of their development might be given after the French Revolution has been completed. The same plan might be adopted for India. The matter given in some such work as Williamson's *Foundation and Growth of the British Empire* is ample for the purpose.

Internally the history of Britain presents elements which have always been very popular in any history course. In fact it may possibly be said, with truth that the industrial revolution is one of the few things which invariably finds a place in the majority of history syllabuses, and that Arkwright and Compton, Watt and Stephenson, are as familiar to children as are Wolfe and Clive or even Wellington and Nelson. But even in this

the treatment is frequently inadequate, as the impression left with children is that the system of factories and the rise of industrial towns date from this period. There were factories even in the seventeenth century, and already in 1640 Manchester was a prosperous manufacturing centre. The essential point is that factories, as we now know them with their aggregations of machinery driven by water or steam power, developed with great rapidity in the later part of the eighteenth century as the result of the inventions of Kaye, Arkwright, and Compton. The treatment of agriculture, too, has got somewhat out of perspective in the same way. One gets the impression that improvements in farming began about 1750, whereas there was a constant stream of literature on agricultural improvements right through the seventeenth and early eighteenth century: but these improvements proceeded with much greater impetus in the later part of this century through the methods introduced by Jethro Tull and Lord Townshend, and on account of the rapid growth in the population. The inclosure movement, too, while not being confined to this century, was marked by greater intensity at this time and also contributed to the increase in the output of farm produce. At this point it will probably be found most convenient to run through the question of Corn Laws, for it is necessary to show that these were also not solely a nineteenth-century problem. In addition to these corrections in the perspective of these movements, other aspects need more adequate treatment. The humanitarian movement, and the work of John Wesley with the growth of Nonconformity under the name of Wesleyanism, might receive a fuller treatment than is usual. Both are well fitted for children to recognize. More attention should be given to art, to the interior decoration of houses, and to the remarkable improvements in furniture making; for we have in this century artists and craftsmen whose names have become household words: Sheraton and Chippendale in furniture, the Adam brothers in house decoration, and the great Joshua Reynolds and Gainsborough in art. Perhaps no collection of illustrations for young people is so representative and so good for this century as those in *State and Commons*, Part III of the First Edition, by Mowat, published by Bell. The pictures are chosen with great discrimination and very well produced.

On the side of general history, if time affords and books are available, something more than just a reference might be given to Russia and Prussia. Frederick the Great of Prussia and Catherine of Russia were both sufficiently adventurous to make a selection of incidents from their lives attractive matter for children. Moreover the part played by Prussia in opposition to France was not without its influence on the taking of Canada. The policy of Catherine to secure the shores of the Black Sea was soon to make the actions of Russia a matter of serious concern to England. It is impossible, therefore, to omit either of these personalities from English history, and their importance justifies any attempt to increase the space allotted to them. The remaining topics of the eighteenth century mentioned inevitably form part and parcel of the English story.

Of the local effects perhaps little need be said. The results of the industrial revolution are so patent to-day that no teacher can miss them. But two things should be kept before the children. The inclosures and scientific developments enabled larger numbers of people to be maintained; the distress, about which so much is said, being due to dislocation, without any organized method of readjustment, which always occurs when rapid changes in the processes involved in any industry are taking place. The shocking conditions in the towns were mainly the result of their rapid growth and the lack of any systematic planning for the future.

The Nineteenth Century.—Coming to the nineteenth century we shall find that to do the work at all adequately is impossible; and, with children, many parts of its history should not be attempted. Most of all we need to be very cautious about expressing dogmatic opinions on the events which took place in it. But we should not, on that account, omit the nineteenth century altogether. And in fact if we are to leave our pupils with definite impressions that history is being made all the time, we must in some form present the nineteenth and the twentieth century, so far as it has gone, to them. We must, however, exercise a greater degree of selection in the subject-matter, and we must keep in mind that any comments upon it or explanations of it must often be merely provisional. We have, for example, universal suffrage, and while this may have been inevitable we have, as yet, no evidence as to whether it is a good or a bad thing. Similarly the apportionment of praise or blame must always be qualified when speaking of events in the nineteenth century. Neither can we be sure of our perspective: the relative importance of movements may be very different from what it appears to be now, when a sufficient time has elapsed to enable us to get a fuller knowledge of them, and when their effects shall have been more completely realized. We must adopt, therefore, an attitude of greater caution in dealing with this period. Even the bare statement of fact may give a wrong conception: for facts taken out of nineteenth-century history are like statements taken out of a book when we are not fully aware of the context. Our interpretation of such statements will depend far more on our own inclinations than on their real significance, and are as likely to be wrong as to be right.

In the suggested list of topics the minimum for securing a not too limited view of England's place in the world has been put down. In internal affairs the history may be summarized as being concerned mainly with efforts to secure better conditions and greater protection for the ordinary citizen. Much of the legislation for this purpose is applied to matters which are within the children's experience or within their own observation. Not only can the child understand, but he can be given matter which will enable him to realize with intense vividness the improvement in conditions which the last hundred years has seen. Moreover factory legislation, state education, and state medical attention will furnish opportunities to bring home to the child his responsibilities as well as his rights. In addition to the main landmarks in industrial and

social legislation, the simple but salient features in the extension of the franchise should be given. Approached in this way the right to vote has a more interesting and a more vital significance than if taken as part of a course in present-day civics. The steps in the extension of the franchise are few and full of a significance which the boy of 13 or 14 can understand.

The question of the development of our overseas dominions cannot be separated from wars, however strong the tendency not to include them in history may be. At the same time many other factors have contributed to our success in establishing them, and the omission of these has tended to give an exaggerated importance to wars in this part of our history. The spirit of adventure and travel, the pleasure we derive from building up new and substantial homes—the colonizing instinct as some would say—have been more important than the actual wars in which we have engaged. For without these qualities in us the results of the wars would have been very ephemeral. Those who advocate the inclusion of more matter connected with our early settlers and explorers are only urging what is necessary to give a just balance to our imperial history. The various “rushes” for gold should not be omitted, and something might be said on the general question, emigration, and a comparison drawn between emigration to, and life in, the colonies in the first half of the last century and the same features to-day. We must also in this final stage summarize the development of South Africa. The changes in African territorial control are probably best taken in connexion with exploration, and consequently would be partially covered in the geography work. But whether taken as part of history or of geography, nothing beyond a summary of the chief points in their growth should be attempted. The other topics, the eastern Mediterranean and the Far East, should not cause much difficulty. The first centres on the decline of Turkey and the rise of Russia, and the other on the trade with China and the rise of Japan. Round these two groups some of the more interesting features of our history in those areas may be given; sufficient, at any rate, to make an intelligent conversation on present-day events in those regions possible.

A glance at the subjects set out under general history will be sufficient to show that they form the necessary complement to that portion of world history which has inevitably formed an integral part of the British history section. The congresses will be treated in connexion with the French Revolution, but their political proceedings should be omitted. The story should be based mainly on the map and should be directed towards a simple explanation of the territorial changes. These congresses and the Holy Alliance form suitable topics for comparison and contrast with the League of Nations. The steps in the formation of the Republic of France might be simply treated, and the unification of Germany with the decline of Austria brought in through Bismarck; the unification of Italy being similarly introduced through Garibaldi and Cavour. Outside Europe the formation of the South American Republics and the American War with Canada will be referred to in connexion with the French Revolution.

The American Civil War will receive some consideration when nineteenth-century social conditions in England are being traced, especially those in connexion with textile areas.

In this way the salient features of world history in the nineteenth century will have received some consideration. The work is very much facilitated if the final year's work in geography is an outline of the world, with more detailed knowledge of the British Dominions and especially of the British Isles. But no plans and no devices can overcome the fact that the period is very complicated, and far too difficult for young people to understand in any but its simplest and boldest outline. In any scheme the selection of subject-matter must be confined to as few as possible of the salient topics. Other essential factors must then be brought in whenever the proper occasion arises. This, of course, is where the specialist has such an advantage: he sees so many opportunities for referring to essentials not included in the syllabus. Moreover he refers to them just at the point where the pupils are most likely to hold them, i.e. when they are intimately bound up with something they already understand. Many authors are doing something of this kind in their books, but considerations of arrangement and space make the inclusion of this particular feature difficult of accomplishment. Moreover the book cannot be arranged so that any particular piece of information is brought in when the child, not the subject, demands it. Nevertheless the non-specialist will get better results by helping the pupils to understand the book than by attempting to do that which can be successfully carried out only when the teacher possesses the knowledge of a specialist. On the top of this outline must come a brief account of the World War and the League of Nations. The latter is, however, too important a matter to be left to the more or less slender treatment it must receive as a portion of history. Special attention should be given to it in lessons set aside for the purpose.

The subject-matter of the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries offers ample scope for investigations by individual members of the class. Here are a few which could be developed: roads, railways, canals, prisons, ships, electricity, anæsthetics, chemistry, trade unions, corn laws, slavery and the slave trade, inclosures, work in factories and mines in the early part of the nineteenth century, employment of children, chimney sweeps, Canada becomes one state, Australia becomes one state, the increase from the original 13 in the present number of states in the United States of America, Sunday schools, Chippendale, Sheraton, Wolfe, Clive, Napoleon, Wellington, Nelson, and so forth. In the choice of topics the teacher should be guided by the interests of the children: he will have little difficulty in finding subjects to suit them. If, however, a boy is keen on inquiring into a subject which is less desirable because of its relative unimportance, he should be allowed to proceed with it: the habit of investigation is more important than the matter investigated.

There is one other aspect of the pupil's study to be discussed before we consider what should be the effect of such a course of work as has been

suggested here. In the days of the annual official examination children were examined only on the work of the year. So long as a pupil was thoroughly conversant with this, that satisfied. But the abolition of annual examinations focused attention on the courses of study as wholes, and the period at the end of the course instead of being a compartment by itself was viewed as part of the whole. The concentric method, of which so much was heard, was largely a device for enabling the whole course of the subject concerned to be present in the mind of the pupil when the final stage was completed. Such a method ensured, it was thought, that the whole work should be constantly revised because revision was the essence of the method itself. There are, however, two fundamental objections to the concentric system in history teaching. It is impossible in one year to take a series of topics covering the whole period of historic times except as disconnected items. The return to the same topic year after year is intensely boring to the children and tends to deaden their interest in the subject. In other words such a method of teaching is, for history, neither good history nor good education. It may be true that skilfully used it did ensure that no part of the history should be completely forgotten. But history would scarcely be worth even the short time spent upon it if the few facts which the child can carry away in his memory were the only or even the main object in studying it. The adoption of the periodic rather than the concentric plan in framing the syllabus of successive years does, however, raise this question of revision in the minds of many. Both the *Suggestions* and the Board's pamphlet, *The Teaching of History*, emphasize the same point. Both say "regular and intelligent revision throughout the course is essential". The pamphlet goes a little farther in elaborating this point. "The very essence of history is this habit of looking before and after." It is clear that revision as commonly understood is not the revision intended here. The best form of revision in history is that in which the new knowledge is constantly related to the whole. In the study of any period of history, a more intelligent conception of the subject is obtained if it is constantly related to the periods which have preceded it and out of which it has grown: and it certainly becomes more interesting to children when they can see how it is connected with their own times. Any method of revision therefore should aim at including these relationships, otherwise it is mere mechanical memory work. A great aid in this revision work is the time chart, and as there will be one for each year's work as well as the longer one, they will show in a diagrammatic form history as a whole in all its main connexions. This makes the chart an essential part in any method of history teaching. From what has just been said it is evident that one of the results we should look for is an intelligent though simple view of history as a whole; the ideal set out in *The Suggestions* does not, therefore, appear quite so impossible. There can be no doubt that where a school treats history as has been suggested in this sketch it will not fall far short of that ideal. But the pupil will have acquired far more than that. He will have gained valuable experience

of the effects of human actions, especially of those actions which have such a marked effect, either good or bad, on society as a whole. Above all he will have acquired such an outlook on his own environment and on the human world in general as is bound to increase the interest and intelligence with which he can view both public and private affairs.

We have now reviewed a history course for the three years at the top of the elementary school. As the school-leaving age is raised to 15+ a year will be left free under the plan outlined above, at the end of the course. It may be that the introductory work on ancient history here suggested will become a general feature of the first year in the senior school. On the other hand schemes may continue to show a commendable variety, the final year being used for some special aspect of history, economic, constitutional, or even legal as suggested in the Hadow Report. Most teachers, however, will for the present concentrate on equipment and methods of work. In time we shall no doubt arrive at a few general principles with regard both to the most suitable material for the various stages of the pupil's life and the best methods of presenting it. This can only be done, if at all, by teachers constantly comparing their experiences, which is one of the purposes for which the Historical Association was founded twenty-two years ago. Much progress has been made in that time, and the experiences and views of a growing number of history teachers are crystallizing on certain principles in the teaching of the subject.